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PREFACE

THIS book has been written to meet the requirements of the new methods of teaching surveying, especially of those methods developed in connection with summer courses where much of the instruction formerly given in the class-room has been transferred to the field. In plan it is a text-book and pocket manual combined, while in scope its aim is—not to cover the whole field of surveying, but—to treat with great thoroughness fundamental principles and methods. As a text-book it deals with the theory of surveying, while as a manual it gives many practical suggestions and directions which are usually left for oral instruction. Oral instruction is peculiarly inadequate in field work where the students are more or less widely scattered, while directions and suggestions if given in the class-room are frequently misunderstood or forgotten before they can be applied in the field. The problem is not solved by issuing a printed collection of exercises in which successive steps are outlined, for students are apt to follow the outline blindly and thus to defeat the end in view. It would seem better to provide a book in which explicit directions for methods of procedure are supplemented by the same explanations and comments as the instructor endeavors to give orally.

With more than one hundred students in the field at one time, the need of such a book in my own classes has become more and more evident. For several years my assistant instructors have helped me to keep a card index of the questions asked, the mistakes made, and the difficulties encountered by students in successive classes. Thus not only were the needs of students ascertained, but those which are most common were emphasized by duplicate cards. This card index led to the preparation, five years ago, of a pocket manual for use in my own classes. Yearly editions of this manual have been issued, each containing changes and additions suggested by

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the ever-growing card index, until now it is offered in its present form for general use. Though intended primarily for students, it is hoped that it may prove helpful to men in actual work, especially to those who are striving in the early years of practice to perfect themselves in the art of surveying.

In attempting to produce a book which shall be useful to the beginner, I have probably gone into details more minutely than seems necessary to the experienced surveyor, who wonders "why something is not left to the common sense of the student." Yet, a long experience in teaching impels me to the belief that nothing should be taken for granted, that anything worth telling the student is worth putting in print, and that after all, common sense in surveying is closely related to a knowledge of common things—little details which some one must tell the student for the first time. If put in print where they will be seen again and again, many of these practical details can be learned just as well before as after graduation, while if left to be picked up in practice many of them may not be learned at all.

A more definite idea of the general plan and scope of the book may be gained by reading the short introductory notes at the heads of the various chapters. Attention is called, however, to the following features:

1. Great care has been taken to make the book convenient for ready reference, so that the student may turn quickly to any part of the subject.

A purely progressive order of arrangement being impracticable, the plan has been followed of grouping closely related chapters and topics.

2. Each branch of field work in Part I is treated under three general heads, viz.: (1) the use of the instrument; (2) the general method of procedure; (3) the practical details of field work.

By this arrangement, general methods of procedure are not obscured by directions for the use of the instrument, or *vice versa*, while that part of the work which can be studied in the class-room is separated from that which is better studied in the field.

3. The time-honored system of explaining the general methods of surveying under the head of compass surveying has been abandoned, and the whole theory of horizontal control is explained in connection with transit surveying.

This innovation is justified by the fact that many engineers seldom, if ever, have occasion to use the compass.

4. Field work and office work are treated in separate parts

of the book, but the important relations between the two are emphasized throughout.

This division of the subject, adopted five years ago in the first preliminary edition of this book, corresponds to a similar division of the work in practice.

5. General statements of important principles and methods are almost invariably supplemented by special applications or practical illustrations, given as a rule in fine print.

This is for the special benefit of those who are studying the subject with little if any help from a teacher.

6. When there are two or more methods of doing the same thing, they are given one after the other and then compared.

For example, see Chapter XII for four methods of running transit lines; Chapter XIII for different methods of locating details; pages 141 and 150 for five methods of locating boundaries; and page 258 for five methods of setting grade-stakes.

7. A great deal of practical information is given without obscuring general methods.

For example, in explaining any method of procedure a concise outline of the essential steps is given first, followed by practical suggestions in fine print.

8. In the chapters on field notes, an attempt has been made to give a systematic treatment of a very important but much neglected part of field work.

Not only have numerous forms and examples been given throughout the book, and especially in Chapter XV, but different *methods* of keeping notes are *explained and compared*. Surprisingly little on this part of the subject is to be found in standard text-books.

9. Throughout the book special effort has been made to give a systematic and practical discussion of the subject of errors.

Consistent accuracy rather than *exceptional* accuracy should be the first aim; hence stress is laid on the *relative importance* of errors from different sources, as well as upon methods of eliminating errors.

10. Methods of checking are emphasized, and wherever possible they are included in methods of procedure so that work may be checked as it progresses rather than after it is finished.

For example, see methods of procedure on pages 152–156.

11. No space has been wasted in describing and illustrating visible parts of instruments. In Part III, however, a critical study is made of the construction and adjustment of instruments and an unusually complete chapter is given on the care of instruments.

This part of the subject should be studied *after* the student has become accustomed to the use of the instruments; hence it is treated at the end of the book instead of at the beginning.

12. The method of calculating bearings in Chapter XXX is original, but it is such a simple and natural application of algebraic signs to angles, that the same general method is probably used by many engineers.

13. It is hoped that chapters on various branches of surveying, such as stadia, compass, and plane-table work, will be found unusually complete. Attention is called to Chapters XVII and XXIII on special work in transit surveying and leveling, and to the treatment of office computations and mapping in Part II. No attempt, however, has been made to cover such subjects as city surveying and mining surveying, since they cannot be treated adequately in a book of this kind. There is an opportunity for specialists to write books of reference on these two subjects, following the general plan of our best books on railway surveying and topographic surveying.

14. Through the kindness of Mr. Charles W. Reinhardt of the *Engineering News*, and of Prof. C. E. Sherman of Ohio State University I have been able to include in Chapters III and XLII valuable extracts from their admirable books on lettering.

I have found it impracticable in many cases to acknowledge my indebtedness to other writers on surveying, so much of the subject having long been the common property of all engineers. Certain portions of the chapters on errors, and on the construction, use, and adjustment of instruments were first suggested by Prof. I. O. Baker's excellent book, *Engineers' Surveying Instruments.* For the most part, however, I have drawn upon data gathered from a great variety of sources during the past fifteen years.

I am indebted to many engineers and to members of the faculty of the Sheffield Scientific School for valuable suggestions offered during the preparation of this book. I am under special obligations to Prof. C. S. Hastings for his helpful criticism of the chapters on errors, to Mr. C. S. Reinhardt for assistance in the preparation of some of the cuts, and to Mr. R S. Kirby for numerous suggestions concerning office-work, as well as for valuable help in the preparation of illustrative examples in Part II. Grateful acknowledgment is also made of the help received from my colleague, Mr. C. S. Farnham, from Mr. C. A. Wheeler of the Connecticut Agricultural

College. Mr. Farnham, besides contributing knowledge gained from practical experience, has been of great assistance in the preparation of the manuscript. Mr. Wheeler has read the entire proof with great care, and has made important corrections and additions.

Acknowledgments are due to Professors Ives and Hilts for the use of Table III, reprinted from their Problems in Surveying; to Professors Merriman and Brooks for Tables VI, IX, and X, reprinted from their Hand Book for Surveyors; and to Professor Searles for Tables VIII, XI, XIV, XV, XVI, and XVIII. Table XVII is from Carhart's Field Book for Civil Engineers.

JOHN C. TRACY.

NEW HAVEN, CONNECTICUT,
August, 1907.

INDEX OF CHAPTERS

PART I—FIELD WORK

CHAPTER — PAGES
I. Introduction. Fundamental Principles and General Methods — 1–8
II. Errors — 9–19
III. Field Notes — 20–30
IV. Chaining — 31–38
V. Errors in Linear Measurements — 39–53
VI. Chaining—Special Work — 54–59
VII. Chaining—Problems — 60–66
VIII. Reading Angles — 67–83
IX. Use of the Transit — 84–103
X. Errors in Angular Measurements — 104–110
XI. Bearings and Azimuths — 111–115
XII. Methods of Running Transit Lines and Traverses — 116–131
XIII. Methods of Locating Details — 132–144
XIV. Transit Surveying—Field Work — 145–163
XV. Transit Surveying—Field Notes — 164–190
XVI. Triangulation — 191–200
XVII. Transit Surveying—Special Work — 201–218
XVIII. Transit Surveying—Problems — 219–225
XIX. Use of the Level and the Leveling-rod — 226–233
XX. Leveling-Theory — 234–247
XXI. Leveling—Field Work — 248–267
XXII. Errors in Leveling — 268–279
XXIII. Leveling—Special Work — 280–292
XXIV. Compass Surveying — 293–299
XXV. Stadia Surveying — 300–317
XXVI. Plane-table Surveying — 318–336
XXVII. Topographic Surveying — 337–353
XXVIII. Determination of a Meridian — 354–360

PART II—OFFICE WORK

Introductory — 361
XXIX. Office Computations. General Directions and Suggestions — 362–377
XXX. Calculation of Bearings — 378–383
XXXI. Latitudes and Departures — 384–398
XXXII. Calculation of Omitted Measurements — 399–406
XXXIII. Calculation of Areas — 407–420
XXXIV. Parting Off Land — 421–427
XXXV. Earthwork Computations — 428–437
XXXVI. The Use of Drawing Instruments — 438–444
XXXVII. Drafting-room Methods — 445–454
XXXVIII. Methods of Plotting Angles — 455–462
XXXIX. Methods of Plotting Traverses — 463–476
XL. Working-up Field Notes Preparatory to Plotting — 477–484
XLI. Plotting the Map — 485–501
XLII. Finishing the Map — 502–528
XLIII. Profiles — 529–536

PART III—SURVEYING INSTRUMENTS

Introductory — 537
XLIV. Primary Parts of Surveying Instruments — 538–558
XLV. Surveying Istruments — 559–580
XLVI. Adjustments — 581–606
XLVII. The Care of Instruments — 607–619

APPENDIX I

Determination of a Meridian by Solar Observation.

TABLES—(See Index of Tables, p. 639.)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PART I

FIELD WORK

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

ART. PAGE
1. The Earth' Surface 1
2. Sea Level 1
3. Horizontal and Vertical Planes 1
4. Surveying 2
5. Plane Surveying 2
6. Horizontal and Vertical Measurements 2
7. Units of Measurement 3
8. Seven Methods of Locating a Point 4
9. Surveying—General Methods 5
10. Important Questions in Surveying 6
11. The Purpose of a Survey 6
12. Errors in Surveying 7
13. Accuracy in Surveying 7
14. Speed 8
15. System 8
16. Equipment 8

CHAPTER II

ERRORS

17. Error 9
18. Sources of Error 9
19. Three Classes of Errors 9
20. Discrepancies 11
21. Elimination of Constant Errors 12
22. Prevention and Elimination of Errors 12
23. Relative Importance of Errors from Different Sources 13
24. Probable Values and the Adjustment of Measurements 13
25. The Theory of Errors or Method of Least Squares 15
26. Use Made of Most Probable Values and Probable Errors 15
27. To Determine Probable Errors 17
28. Formulas for Probable Errors 17
29. Abbreviated Methods for Finding Probable Error 18
30. Illustration of the Method of Least Squares Applied to Angles 19

CHAPTER III

FIELD NOTES

ART. PAGE
31. Field Notes 20
32. Method of Keeping Notes 20
33. Field Notes—General Suggestions 21
34. The Three Parts of Field Notes 21
35. Numerical Values 22
36. Sketches 23
37. Explanatory Notes 23
38. Freehand Lettering 24
39. Final Suggestions on Taking Notes 29
40. Special Directions for Class Work 30

CHAPTER IV

CHAINING

41. Chaining 31
42. Importance of Chaining 31
43. Care of Steel Tape 31
44. To Do Up a Steel Tape in a Figure Eight 31
45. To Undo a Steel Tape 32
46. To Do Up a Chain 32
47. To Undo a Chain 32
48. To Read a Tape 32
49. To Read a Chain 33
50. General Method of Chaining 33
51. End Graduation 35
52. Setting the Chaining-pins 35
53. Chaining on a Slope 35
54. Precautions to Insure Accuracy 36
55. Errors 37
56. Summary 37

CHAPTER V

ERRORS IN LINEAR MEASUREMENTS

57. Sources of Error in Chaining 39
58. Error Expressed by a Ratio 39
59. Error in the Length of the Tape 39
60. Error Due to the Tape not Being Horizontal 40
61. Error When the Tape is Not Stretched Tight and Straight 40
62. Error Due to Temperature 40
63. Error in Alignment 41
64. Error Due to Sag 41
65. Error Due to Uneven Pull 42
66. Errors in Marking Tape-lengths 42
67. Errors in Reading the Tape 42
68. Sources of Errors in Chaining—Summary 43
69. Relative Importance of Sources of Error 43
70. Limits of Error 44
71. Probable Error of a Line N-Tape-lengths Long 45
72. To Determine Coefficients of Precision 46
73. Customary Limits of Error (Table I and II) 46
74. Limits of Precision Expressed by a Ratio (Table III) 47
75. Comparison of Tables II and III 50
76. Requirements Corresponding to Different Limits of Precision 51

CHAPTER VI

CHAINING. SPECIAL WORK

ART. PAGE
77. Obstacles to Chaining 54
78. Referencing a Point 54
79. To Chain Between Two Points when Neither Can be Seen from the Other 55
80. To Make a Chain Survey 56
81. Locating Houses, Fences, Streets, Streams, and Other Details with the Tape 56
82. To Measure a Base-line 57
83. To Find the Probable Error 58

CHAPTER VII

CHAINING. PROBLEMS

84. To Construct a Right Angle with a Tape by the 3-4-5 Method 60
85. Perpendiculars and Parallels 61
86. Laying Off or Measuring Angles 63
87. Obstacles to Chaining 64

CHAPTER VIII

READING ANGLES

88. The Two Horizontal Plates of the Transit 67
89. Limb Graduations 67
90. General Method of Reading Angles 68
91. Reading the Limb 68
92. Common Mistakes in Reading the Limb 69
93. Method of Reading the Limb Illustrated 69
94. Full-circle System from 0° to 360° in Both Directions 71
95. Combination of Full-circle and Half-circle Systems 73
96. Combination of Full circle and Quadrant Systems 75
97. Verniers 76
98. To Read a Venier 76
99. Suggestions for Reading Verniers 76
100. Common Mistakes in Reading Verniers 77
101. Illustrations of Verniers 77
102. I and II. Verniers Reading to Minutes 78
103. II and IV. Verniers Reading to Minutes 79
104. V and VI. Verniers Reading to 30 Seconds 80
105. VII and VIII. Verniers Reading to 20 Seconds 81
106. IX and X. Verniers Reading to 10 Seconds 82
107. Special Forms of Verniers 83
108. Summary 83

CHAPTER IX

USE OF THE TRANSIT

109. Caution 84
110. Plumb-bob 85
111. Using the Telescope 85
112. Transiting, Plunging or Reversing the Telescope 86
113. Setting up the Transit 88
114. Suggestions for Setting Up a Transit 87

ART. PAGE
115. Accuracy Required in Setting Up a Transit 89
116. Backsight—Foresight 90
117. Permanent Backsight 90
118. Permanent Foresight 91
119. Use of the Upper and Lower Clamp 91
120. Lining In, or Sighting in Line 91
121. Reversing in Azimuth and Altitude, or Double Reverse 92
122. Prolonging a Straight Line 92
123. Double Centering 93
124. Balancing In 93
125. Measuring Horizontal Angles 93
126. Angles Taken to the Right or Left 94
127. Taking a Number of Angles from the Same Backsight 94
128. Setting the Vernier 94
129. Suggestions for measuring Horizontal Angles 95
130. Sources of Error in Measuring Horizontal Angles 96
131. Suggestions for Using the Vernier and Reading Angles 96
132. Common Mistakes in Reading Angles 97
133. The Reading-glass 98
134. Taking Angles from the Backsight Prolonged 98
135. Vertical Angles 98
136. To Turn Off a Horizontal Angle 99
137. To Measure Horizontal Angles with Great Accuracy 99
138. Measuring Angles by Repetition 99
139. Measuring Angles by Series 100
140. Additional Precautions in Measuring Angles 101
141. Comparison of the Two Methods, by Repetition and by Series 101
142. To Lay Off an Angle by Repetition 101
143. Reading Bearings 101

CHAPTER X

ERRORS IN ANGULAR MEASUREMENTS

144. Sources of Error in Measuring Angles 104
145. Relative Importance of Errors 104
146. Errors in Setting Up the Transit 104
147. Errors in Sighting 105
148. Natural Sources of Error 106
149. Elimination of Errors 106
150. The Precision of Angular Measurements 107
151. Conditions which Affect the Precision of Angular Measurements 108
152. Customary Limits of Error 108

CHAPTER XI

BEARINGS AND AZIMUTHS

153. Magnetic Declination 111
154. The Bearing of a Line 111
155. Forward Bearing and Back Bearing 112
156. Reading Bearings 113
157. The Bearings Kept in a Survey 113
158. Calculated Bearing 113
159. Things to Remember About Bearings—Summary 113
160. The Azimuth of a Line 114
161. Facts to Remember About Azimuths 115

CHAPTER XII

METHODS OF RUNNING TRANSIT LINES AND TRAVERSES

ART. PAGE
162. Transit Station 116
163. Transit Line 116
164. Transit Angle 116
165. The Transit Line a Line of Reference 116
166. Running Transit-lines 116
167. Transit-line Angle 117
168. Deflection Angle 117
169. System of Transit Lines 117
170. Traverse 117
171. Triangulation 118
172. The Transit-line Angles—Right or Left 118
173. Transit-line Angles—Interior and Exterior 118
174. A Survey Closes 118
175. Closing Check on Transit-line Angles 119
176. The Error of Closure—Transit Lines 119
177. The Methods of Running Transit Lines 119
178. Running Transit Lines by Angles 120
179. Running Transit Lines by Deflection Angles 120
180. Running Transit Lines by Azimuths 120
181. Outline of the Two Azimuth Methods 122
182. When Azimuths and Magnetic Bearings Disagree 123
183 Comparison of the Two Azimuth Methods 124
184. Checking Azimuths by the Magnetic Needle 124
185. A True North-and-South Line as a Reference Meridian 124
186. Any Reference Meridian May be Used 124
187. Orienting the Transit 125
188. Running Transit Lines by Bearings 125
189. Running Transit Lines by Angles and Calculated Bearings 126
190. Methods of Running Transit Lines Compared 127
191. Transit Lines—Summary 130

CHAPTER XIII

METHODS OF LOCATING DETAILS

192. Transit Survey—General Method 132
193. Two Methods of Carrying on the Work 132
194. Locating Objects from Transit Lines 133
195. Locating Objects by Angles and Distances 134
196. Locating Points by Two Intersecting Angles 137
197. Locating Points by the Three-point Method 137
198. Locating Objects by Offsets 138
199. Locating Objects by Measurements Oblique to the Transit Line 139
200. Locating Boundaries 141
201. Practical Application of Methods 142
202. Summary 142

CHAPTER XIV

TRANSIT SURVEYING. FIELD WORK

203. Transit Party 145
204. The Instruments and Equipment 145
205. Signals 146
206. Transit Survey—General Method 146
207. A Transit Station 146
208. Guard-stake 147

ART. PAGE
209. Numbering or Lettering Stations 147
210. Choosing a Place for a Transit Station 148
211. Referencing a Station 148
212. Questions of Judgment 148
213. Obstacles to Surveying 148
214. The Purpose for Which a Survey is Made 149
215. The Relation Between Field Work and Office Work 149
216. Where to Run Transit Lines 149
217. Methods of Running Transit Lines 151
218. Suggestions for Running Transit Lines 152
219. Methods of Procedure in Running Transit Lines 153
220. Method of Procedure for Direct angle Method 154
221. Method of Procedure for Deflection angle Method 155
222. Method of Procedure for Azimuth Method 156
223. Methods of Locating Details 156
224. Staking Out Work 158
225. Field Notes 159
226. Errors and Limits of Error 159
227. Permissible Error of Closure 160
228. The Duties of the Different Members of a Transit Party 161

CHAPTER XV

TRANSIT SURVEYING. FIELD NOTES

229. Different Methods of Keeping Field Notes 164
230. Notes Pertaining to Transit Lines 165
231. Three General Forms of Notes 165
232. The Tabulated Form of Notes Without a Sketch 165
233. The Sketch Method for Field Notes 165
234. The Combination Method of Keeping Field Notes 166
235. When Should the Notes Read from the Bottom of the Page Up? 166
236. What Should the Field Notes Include? 167
237. Allow Plenty of Room; Do Not Crowd the Notes 167
238. Repeating Notes on Different Pages 167
239. General Sketch of Transit Lines 168
240. Five Things to Make Clear in any Form of Transit Notes 168
241. Different Forms of Tabulated Field Notes 169
242. Illustrations of Field Notes 175

CHAPTER XVI

TRIANGULATION

243. Triangulation 191
244. In a Network or System of Triangles, General Method 191
245. Sources of Error in Triangulation 191
246. Stations and Signals 192
247. Choice of Stations 192
248. The Base-line 193
249. What Angles are Measured in Triangulation? 194
250. Measurement of Angles, General Method 194
251. Field Notes for Triangulation 198
252. Signals for Stations 198
253. Limits of Error 199
254. Triangulation and Trigonometric Leveling 200

CHAPTER XVII

TRANSIT SURVEYING. SPECIAL WORK

ART. PAGE
255. Balancing-in the Transit. 201
256. To Sight Parallel to a Given Line. 201
257. To Find the Intersection of Two Straight Lines. 202
258. To Measure the Angle at a Fence-corner. 202
259. Referencing a Point. 203
260. Referencing a Line. 203
261. To Locate Points on the Water with two Transits. 203
262. To Establish a Base-line by Means of a Supplementary Broken Base-line. 204
263. To Run in an Arc of a Circle with the Transit and Tape. 204
264. To Lay Out a Circular Curve with the Tape. 207
265. Giving Lines for Masonry. 208
266. To Stake Out a Building. 209
267. To Stake Out a House-lot. 210
268. Farm Survey. 211
269. Survey for an Architect. 211
270. To Locate Machinery, lines of Shafting, and Similar Objects. 212
271. To Stake Out a Road or Highway. 212
272. To Give Lines for a Retaining-wall. 213
273. To Give Lines for a Wing Abutment. 214
274. To Give a Line for a Tunnel. 215
275. To Locate Piers for a Bridge. 215

CHAPTER XVIII

TRANSIT SURVEYING. PROBLEMS

276. Problems in Triangulation. 219
277. Obstacles to Transit Surveying. 219
278. Perpendiculars and Parallels. 224

CHAPTER XIX

USE OF THE LEVEL AND THE LEVELING-ROD

279. Setting Up the Level. 226
280. Use of the Telescope. 227
281. Reading the Leveling-rod 227
282. Targets with Ordinary Scales. 229
283. Targets with Verniers. 231
284. Extended rods. 231
285. The Difference Between Methods of Reading Rods 232
286. To Test a High-rod Reading. 232
287. Use of the Hand-level. 233

CHAPTER XX

LEVELING-THEORY

288. Leveling. 234
289. Datum. 234
290. Datum Line and Datum Plane. 234
291. Bench or Bench-mark. 235
292. Stations. 235
293. Plane of Sight. 235
294. The Two Essential Steps in Leveling. 235
295. Height of Instrument. 236

ART. PAGE
296. Backsight 236
297. Foresight 236
298. Abbreviations 237
299. Theory of Leveling 237
300. Intermediate Stations 238
301. Turning-point 238
302. Importance of Turning-points—Compared with Intermediate Stations 239
303. Forms of Notes 239
304. Rules for Checking Level Notes 242
305. Differential Leveling 242
306. Profile Leveling 242
307. Flying Levels 243
308. Cross-levels 243
309. Reciprocal Leveling 243
310. Establishing Points at Given Elevations 243
311. Trigonometric Leveling 244
312. Leveling with the Gradienter 245
313. Barometric Leveling 245

CHAPTER XXI

LEVELING—FIELD WORK

314. A Level Party 248
315. Equipment for a Level Party 248
316. Signals 248
317. Some Things to Know Before Beginning Work 249
318. Two Methods of Getting the Rod-reading 249
319. The Starting-point or First Backsight 249
320. The Field-work Routine 250
321. Lengths of Foresights and Backsights 251
322. Where to Set Up a Level 251
323. Choosing Turning-points 252
324. Holding the Leveling-rod 252
325. Moving the Target 252
326. Establishing Bench-marks 253
327. Sights on Intermediate Stations 253
328. Numbering Stations 254
329. Checking Levels 254
330. How Close to Check 254
331. Errors in Leveling 255
332. Speed 255
333. Field Notes 258
334. Setting Grade-stakes 258
335. Marking Grade-stakes 260
336. Shooting in Grades 260
337. Summary—Directions and Suggestions for Spirit-leveling 260
338. Duties of Levelman 263
339. Duties of the Rodman 263
340. Instructions for Very Accurate Leveling 263
341. Trigonometric Leveling 264
342. The Aneroid Barometer 264
343. Leveling With the Barometer 265

CHAPTER XXII

ERRORS IN LEVELING

344. Sources of Errors in Leveling 268
345. Instrumental Errors 268
346. Mistakes in Manipulation 269

ART. PAGE
347. Mistakes in Reading the Rod 270
348. Errors in Sighting 270
349. Errors Due to Change in Position of the Level or the Rod 271
350. Errors Due to Natural Sources 272
351. Mistakes in Recording and Computing 274
352. Personal Errors 274
353. Elimination of Errors—Recapitulation 274
354. Customary Limits of Error 275
355. Instructions for Accurate Leveling 277

CHAPTER XXIII

LEVELING—SPECIAL WORK

356. To Determine the Profile of a Street 280
357. To Set Stakes on a Grade Between Two Fixed Points 280
358. To Set Grade-stakes for a Curve 282
359. To Lay Out Grades for Pavements 282
360. To Give Grades for a Sewer 283
361. To Give Elevations for a Line of Shafting 287
362. To Estimate Cut and Fill for Grading 287
363. To Set Stakes for Grading Land 287
364. To Stake Out a Vertical Curve 289

CHAPTER XXIV

COMPASS SURVEYING

365. Compass Surveying 293
366. Use of the Compass 294
367. Compass Surveying—General Method 295
368. Detection and Elimination of Local Attraction 296
369. Field Notes and Method of Procedure 297
370. Sources of Error 298
371. Rerunning Old Surveys 298

CHAPTER XXV

STADIA SURVEYING

372. Stadia, Stadia-wires, Stadia-rod 300
373. The Principle of the Stadia 301
374. To Test the Stadia Interval 302
375. To adjust the Stadia-wires 303
376. Fixed Stadia-wires 303
377. Method of Reading the Rod 304
378. Distance and Elevation when the Line of Sight is Inclined 305
379. Inclined Readings 305
380. The Reduction of Inclined Stadia Readings 307
381. To Measure Horizontal Distances With the Stadia 307
382. To Obtain Vertical Distances or Elevations 308
383. Stadia Surveys 309
384. Forms of Notes 310
385. Sources of Error in Stadia Surveying 312
386. Limits of Error 313
387. Practical Suggestions.—*Summary* 315

CHAPTER XXVI

PLANE-TABLE SURVEYING

ART. PAGE
388. The Plane-table.......... 318
389. Plane-table Surveying.......... 318
390. To Set Up the Plane-table.......... 319
391. Five Methods of Work.......... 320
392. The Five Methods Compared—Summary.......... 327
393. Practical Suggestions for Plane-table Work.......... 327
394. Practical Questions Relating to Field Work.......... 328
395. The Three-point Problem.......... 329

CHAPTER XXVII

TOPOGRAPHIC SURVEYING

396. Contour.......... 337
397. Contour Interval.......... 337
398. Use of Contours.......... 337
399. Contour-lines, Fundamental Principles.......... 338
400. Ridge Lines and Valley Lines.......... 339
401. Topographic Surveying.......... 339
402. Locating Contours.......... 340
403. Methods of Horizontal Control.......... 341
404. Methods of Vertical Control.......... 343
405. Choosing Stations for Horizontal Control.......... 344
406. Choosing Stations for Vertical Control.......... 344
407. Choosing the Controlling Points of Contours.......... 344
408. Choosing Contour Intervals.......... 345
409. The Choice of Methods and of Instruments.......... 345
410. Field Notes.......... 346
411. Field Routine.......... 348

CHAPTER XXVIII

DETERMINATION OF A MERIDIAN

412. Why Polaris is Chosen for Observations.......... 354
413. Facts Concerning Polaris.......... 355
414. Three Methods of Observing Polaris.......... 356
415. Methods Compared.......... 359
416. Rough Determination of the True Meridian.......... 359
417. To Determine the Magnetic Declination.......... 360

PART II

OFFICE WORK

INTRODUCTORY

418. Computations.......... 361
419. Drawing.......... 361

CHAPTER XXIX

OFFICE COMPUTATIONS. GENERAL DIRECTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

ART. PAGE
420. Checking Computations.... 362
421. Systematic Methods.... 363
422. Speed.... 363
423. Economic Methods of Procedure.... 364
424. Short Cuts in Arithmetical Work.... 364
425. Eliminating Worthless Refinements.... 369
426. Logarithmic Computations.... 373
427. Useful Tables.... 376
428. Graphic Methods.... 376
429 Mechanical Methods.... 377

CHAPTER XXX

CALCULATION OF BEARINGS

430. Algebraic Signs of Bearings and Angles.... 378
431. The Angular Distance.... 378
432. To Convert Angular Distance into Bearing.... 378
433. Calculating Bearings.... 379
434. Application of the Method to a System of Transit Lines.... 381
435. To Calculate the Angle Between Two Lines when Their Bearings are Known.... 382

CHAPTER XXXI

LATITUDES AND DEPARTURES

436. Latitude and Departure.... 384
437. Latitude and Departure—Found from the Bearing.... 384
438. Algebraic Signs of Latitudes and Departures 384
439. The Latitudes and Departures of a System of Transit Lines.... 385
440. In a Closed System of Transit Lines.... 386
441. The Error of Closure of a Survey.... 386
442. Each Line has Two Bearings—Which is Used?.... 387
443. To Compute Latitudes and Departures, Using Azimuths.... 387
444. Different Methods of Finding Latitudes and Departures.... 387
445. A Complete Example in the Computation of Latitudes and Departures.... 389
446. Balancing a Survey.... 395
447. Two Methods of Balancing a Survey.... 395

CHAPTER XXXII

CALCULATION OF OMITTED MEASUREMENTS

448. Omitted Parts of a Triangle.... 399
449. Trigonometric Relations of Bearing, Length, Latitude and Departure.... 400
450. Omitted Measurements.... 400
451. Methods of Calculation.... 401
452. Simple Trigonometrical Methods.... 404

CHAPTER XXXIII

CALCULATION OF AREAS.

ART. PAGE
453. The Area of Land. 407
454. Units of Area. 407
455. Geometrical and Trigometrical Principles. 407
456. General Methods of Finding Areas. 408
457. Obtaining the Area from a Map. 408
458. Computing Areas Directly from Field Measurements. 410
459. Areas from Offsets. 411
460. Computation of Areas from Latitudes and Double Longitudes. 413
461. To Compute Areas from Coördinates. 418
462. Summary of the Different Methods of Computing Irregular Areas 418

CHAPTER XXXIV

PARTING OFF LAND

463. General Problem. 421
464. To Part Off a Required Area from a Given Irregular Polygon, Two General Cases. 422

CHAPTER XXXV

EARTHWORK COMPUTATIONS

465. Grade Elevations. 428
466. Geometrical Definitions and Principles. 429
467. Calculating Earthwork by the Method of Unit Areas. 429
468. Estimates of Cut and Fill. 432
469. Interpolation. 433
470. Prismoids. 434
471. Estimating Cut and Fill from a Contour Map. 435

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE USE OF THE DRAWING INSTRUMENTS

472. The Use of the Pencil. 438
473. Use of the T-Square. 438
474. Use of the Triangles. 439
475. Use of the Scale. 440
476. Use of the Ruling-pen. 440
477. Use of Dividers. 441
478. Use of the Compasses. 442
479. Use of the Curve Ruler. 442
480. The Use of the Pantograph. 443

CHAPTER XXXVII

DRAFTING-ROOM METHODS

481. To Fasten the Paper to the Board. 445
482. Precautions to Insure Neatness. 445
483. Pencilling. 446
484. Inking. 446
485. Erasing. 447

ART. PAGE
486. Laying Off Measurements to Scale.... 448
487. Section-lining.... 449
488. Tinting.... 449
489. Tracing.... 451
490. Blue-printing.... 453
491. Brown Solar Paper, Printing.... 454

CHAPTER XXXVIII

METHODS OF PLOTTING ANGLES

492. Five Methods of Plotting Angles.... 455
493. The Protractor Method.... 455
494. The Tangent Method.... 458
495. The Cosine and Sine Method.... 459
496. The Chord Method.... 459
497. The Latitude and Departure Method.... 461
498. Methods Compared.... 461
499. The Three-point Problem.... 462

CHAPTER XXXIX

METHODS OF PLOTTING TRAVERSES

500. Different Methods of Plotting Traverses.... 463
501. Importance of Traverse Lines.... 463
502. The Use of the Protractor.... 464
503. Plotting Each Transit Line from the Preceding Transit Lines.... 464
504. Plotting by Deflection Angles.... 466
505. Plotting by Bearings.... 467
506. Plotting by Azimuths.... 471
507. Plotting Transit Lines by Latitudes and Departures.... 471
508. Methods of Plotting Traverses Compared.... 475

CHAPTER XL

WORKING UP FIELD NOTES PREPARATORY TO PLOTTING

509. The Method of Working Up Notes.... 477
510. Correcting Measurements.... 478
511. Adjusting Measurements.... 478
512. Calculating Bearings.... 479
513. Supplying Missing Data.... 480
514. Reducing Stadia Notes.... 480
515. Getting Together Data for Plotting—Summary.... 483

CHAPTER XLI

PLOTTING THE MAP

516. Equipment.... 485
517. Precautions Necessary in Accurate Plotting.... 486
518. General Methods.... 487
519 Method of Procedure Outlined.... 487
520. Scales.... 488
521. The Choice of Scale.... 489
522. Arrangement.... 490
523. How to Begin a Map.... 490

ART. PAGE
524. Plotting the Triangulation Net. 491
525. Plotting Traverses. 492
526. Checks Used in Plotting. 494
527. Plotting Details. 496
528. Interpolating a Contour. 497
529. Accuracy Required in Plotting. 499
530. Speed. 499
531. Copying and Transferring Maps. 500

CHAPTER XLII

FINISHING THE MAP

532. Requirements for Maps. 502
533. The General Method of Procedure. 503
534. Arrangement. 504
535. Inking. 506
536. Outline Shading. 506
537. Use of Colored Inks. 506
538. Tracings. 507
539. Lettering. 507
540. General Suggestions for Lettering Maps. 517
541. Contour-lines. 518
542. Conventional Signs. 519
543. Section-lining. 522
544. Tinting. 522
545. Border-lines. 523
546. Titles. 523
547. Meridian Needles. 526
548. Scales. 526
549. Keys or Legends. 527
550. Explanatory Notes. 527
551. Cleaning Maps. 527
552. Surveyor's Certificate. 527
553. Filing Systems. 528

CHAPTER XLIII

PROFILES

554. Profiles. 529
555. Profile-papers. 530
556. Scale. 530
557. Working Up Notes. 531
558. Plotting Profiles—General Method of Procedure. 532
559. Profiles of Several Related Lines. 533
560. Laying Out Grades. 533
561. Plotting a Profile from Contours. 533
562. Finishing Profiles. 534
563. Lettering the Profile. 535

PART III

SURVEYING INSTRUMENTS

INTRODUCTORY

564. *The Study of Instruments.* 537

CHAPTER XLIV

PRIMARY PARTS OF SURVEYING INSTRUMENTS

ART. PAGE
565. The Vernier. 538
566. The Magnetic Needle. 541
567. The Level-bubble. 544
568. The Theory of Lenses. 545
569. The Telescope. 549

CHAPTER XLV

SURVEYING INSTRUMENTS

570. Chains and Tapes. 559
571. The Transit. 563
572. The Level. 569
573. Leveling-rods. 571
574. Stadia Rods. 573
575. Surveyor's Compass. 575
576. The Plane-table. 576
577. The Sextant. 577

CHAPTER XLVI

ADJUSTMENTS

578. Why Adjustments are Necessary. 581
579. General Suggestions. 581
580. The Method of Reversion. 583
581. Adjustments of the Transit. 584
582. Adjustments of the Wye-level. 591
583. The "Peg" Adjustment. 597
584. Adjustments of the Dumpy-Level. 600
585. Centering the Eyepiece. 601
586. Adjustment of the Object-glass Slide. 602
587. Adjustments of the Compass. 602
588. Adjustments of the Plane-table. 603
589. Adjustments of the Sextant. 604

CHAPTER XLVII

THE CARE OF INSTRUMENTS

590. Precautions. 607
591. Steel Tapes. 609
592. Lubricants. 611
593. To Clean Screws and Screw-holes. 612
594. Verniers and graduated Arcs. 612
595. Compass-needles. 612
596. Level-bubbles and Tubes. 613
597. Telescope. 614
598. Care of Tripods. 617
599. *Care of Centers, Spindles,* and Sockets. 618

APPENDIX I

DETERMINATION OF A MERIDIAN BY SOLAR OBSERVATION

ART. PAGE
600. Astronomical Triangle 620
601. The Sun's Declination 622
602. Refraction 623
603. Determination of the Meridian by the Sun's Altitude 624
604. The Solar Attachment 627
605. Other Methods of Determining a Meridian 632
606. To Determine Latitude 632
607. Determination of the Meridian in High Latitudes—Observations by Equal Altitudes 634

TABLES

See Index of Tables on Page 638.

INTRODUCTION

To the Student:

The theory of plane surveying is surprisingly simple, but the application of the theory in practice is more difficult. There is not much to understand, but there is a great deal to remember. Success depends more upon training and judgment than upon a knowledge of theory. You can hardly expect in a college course to acquire the skill which comes from long-continued repetition, or the judgment which comes from wide experience. On the other hand you should realize that the habits formed when first learning the use of surveying instruments, and the methods of field work acquired in college are apt to cling to you long after graduation. It is the object of this book not only to explain the theory of surveying but to help you to acquire those habits and methods of work that are in accord with the best practice. This does not mean that you can read over the practical suggestions and directions for field work once for all and then remember them ever after. On the contrary, you should take the book into the field with you and consult it constantly. Study it first for general principles and for a few of the most important directions, and then, as you have opportunity, read and reread portions of the text in order to pick up the fine points of good field work. For example, you are a rodman and are waiting for the levelman to set up. Now is a good time to reread the suggestions for the rodman, page 261. Or if a member of the transit party with little to do, read portions of Chapters IX, XII, XIII, and XIV on transit surveying. In this way much time can be used to good advantage which would otherwise be wasted.

Learn different methods of doing the same thing and study the advantages and disadvantages of each method. Study also the different sources of error, for field work is a continual fight against errors. In practice the surveyor aims to save time and expense. Working thus under pressure, it is a great advantage to be able in any given case to choose the most suitable method, and to know what sources of error may be ignored and what must be eliminated. Learn to check work while it is in progress, for a considerable portion of a surveyor's work is in making sure that the remaining portion is correct.

Finally, do not work too much by rule, and do not form the "handbook habit." The sooner you are able to work without help from this book the better the book will serve its purpose. Throughout the course maintain an attitude of questioning. Do not accept what an instructor says or what the book tells you as gospel truth. Constantly ask yourself '*Why*?' and do not rest satisfied until you know *why*. This is the spirit which will enable you to get the most out of the course.

I. C. T.

PLANE SURVEYING

PART I

FIELD WORK

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES AND GENERAL METHODS

1. The Earth's Surface is understood in geodesy to be the surface of a globe as determined by the mean level of the ocean. The actual surface of the land is, for the most part, above the earth's surface. It is not necessary, however, to make this distinction in ordinary surveying except when dealing with elevations. The earth's surface is generally spoken of as a sphere; it is more nearly an oblate spheroid of revolution.

The longer axis is in the plane of the equator, the shorter from pole to pole. The lengths as generally used in geodesy are: long axis 41 852 124 ft., short axis 41 710 242 ft.—a difference of 141 882 ft., or about 26.87 miles. The average radius of the earth's surface is therefore 3956.5 miles

2. Sea Level is understood to be the mean between high and low tides. It can be determined at any place by means of self-registering gages, the observations extending over a long period of time.

3. Horizontal and Vertical Planes. At any given point on the earth's surface there can be but one vertical line, i.e., a line to the earth's center as indicated by a plumb-line. A plane perpendicular to this line is a *horizontal plane.* A plane passed through this line is a *vertical plane.* At any given point there can be but one horizontal plane; there can, however, be an indefinite number of vertical planes.

Remark. A *level surface* is not a horizontal plane, indeed it is not a plane at all but a surface which is at every point perpendicular to a plumb-line at that point. If the plumb-line at every point pointed to the zenith, a level surface would conform to the earth's surface (an oblate spheroid), but owing to the irregular distribution of mass there are many deviations of the plumb-line, and a level surface follows all such deviations. These deviations of the plumb-line are not taken into account in plane surveying.

4. Surveying. Making such observations and measurements as will determine the relative positions of points on the earth's surface.

Measurements may be either angular or linear.

5. Plane Surveying. Surveying in which all measurements are either made or reduced parallel to a horizontal or vertical plane.

In *plane* surveying the curvature of the earth's surface * is not taken into account, in *geodetic* surveying it is; hence the necessity for the two terms *plane* and *geodetic*. For ordinary surveys, extending over small areas, the methods of plane surveying involve no appreciable errors. The limit is roughly placed at about 100 square miles, although plane surveys of much greater extent are often made when great accuracy is not required. The difference in length between the arc on the earth's surface and a straight line is only about 0.05 ft. in 11½ miles, 0.5 ft. in 23 miles, and 1.0 ft. in 34½ miles.

6. Horizontal and Vertical Measurements. There are four kinds of measurements used in plane surveying:

HORIZONTAL	VERTICAL
1. Horizontal Distances	3. Vertical Distances
2. Horizontal Angles	4. Vertical Angles

Remark. In exceptional cases linear measurements are sometimes made along an inclined surface, but these measurements are afterwards reduced to a horizontal or vertical basis. It is important that the student should understand at the outset the distinctions as illustrated in Fig. 6.

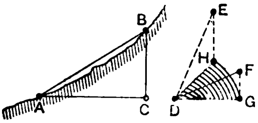

FIG. 6.

Illustration. Let *A* be a point at the bottom of a hill and *B* a point at the top. The distance *AB* as understood in surveying is not the air-line distance *AB* but its *horizontal projection AC*. Again, let *H*, *D*, and *G* be points in the same horizontal plane, *E* a point in a vertical line through *H*, and *F* a point in a vertical line through *G*. The angle *EDF* as understood in surveying is not the actual angle between the two lines *ED* and *DF*, but the *horizontal projection* of that angle, i.e., the angle *HDG*, which lies in a horizontal plane through *D*, the vertex.

BC, *EH*, and *FG* are *vertical distances* and *BAC*, *EDH*, and *FDG* are *vertical angles*. If *A* is at the sea-level, *BC* is the elevation of *B* above the mean surface of the earth; if both *A* and *B* are above the sea-level, then *BC* is simply the *difference in elevation* of *A* and *B*.

---

* About 0.7 ft. in *one* mile or $0.667D^2$ miles = curvature in *feet*, where D is the distance in miles, i.e., Curvature $= \frac{\text{Square of distance}}{\text{Mean diameter of earth}}$.

7. Units of Measurement. (*a*) LINEAR UNITS. In the United States the unit of length is the *foot.* The surveyor uses *decimal* parts of a foot instead of inches and fractions of an inch. For example, in surveying 50 ft. 9 in. is usually given as 50.75 ft. It is seldom necessary to give measurements closer than the nearest thousandth of a foot; more often the nearest hundredth or even tenth of a foot will answer every purpose.

Angular units. Angles are measured in *degrees*, *minutes*, and *seconds.* 60 sec. = 1 min.; 60 min. = 1 deg. One degree is $\frac{1}{360}$ part of the circumference of a circle. Usually angles are measured to the nearest minute or half-minute.

(*a*) *Changing decimals of a foot to inches.* For the student who is accustomed to fractions of an inch but not to decimals of a foot it is helpful to remember that 0.01 ft. is approximately $\frac{1}{8}$ inch. A difference, for example, between two measurements of 0.01 ft. seems almost inappreciable to the average student until he realizes that it is $\frac{1}{8}$ inch. Having fixed this relation in mind he can readily convert decimals of a foot to inches and *vice versa.*

Illustration. 0.04 ft. $= 4 \times \frac{1}{8}'' = \frac{1}{2}''$ 0.07 ft. $= 7 \times \frac{1}{8}'' = \frac{7}{8}''$. 0.1 ft. $= 10 \times \frac{1}{8}'' = 1\frac{1}{4}''$. These values are only approximately correct, but near enough for most purposes, as seen from the following table:

Inches	Approximate	To five places
$\frac{1}{8}$	0.01 ft	0.01042
$\frac{1}{2}$	0.04 "	0.04167
1	0.08 "	0.08333
$1\frac{1}{4}$	0.10 "	0.10417

(*b*) OTHER UNITS. In certain kinds of work it is convenient for the surveyor to use feet and inches, and it is often necessary to change inches to a decimal of a foot and *vice versa.* A useful table for this purpose is given in the back of this book. The foot is one third of the length of the *standard yard.* The standard yard is a length fixed by a standard bar at 62° Fah. This standard length was originally an arbitrary one. The standard bar is kept in the Standards Department of the Board of Trade in London. In some countries, France for example, the *meter* is the standard of length. One meter = 3.2808333 ft. The unit of length in Spanish measures is the *vara*, several values of which seem to be in use, viz.: California, 1 vara = 33 inches; Texas, 1 vara = $33\frac{1}{3}$ inches; Mexico, 1 vara = 32.9931 inches.

In land surveying Gunter's chain gives rise to other units, viz., the *chain* and the *link.* 1 chain = 66 ft., 1 link = 66 ÷ 100 = 0.66 ft. or 7.92 inches. This unit is based upon the fact that ten square chains equal an acre, i.e., $10 \times 66^2 = 43\,560$ square ft. = 1 acre. To reduce links to feet: Subtract as many units as there are hundreds of links and take $\frac{2}{3}$ of the remainder.

Illustration. 50 links $= (50 - 0.50) \times \frac{2}{3} = 33$ ft.

8. Seven Methods of Locating a Point. The object of surveying is to determine the *relative* positions of points. To locate a point its position with respect to at least two other points must be known. Let *A* and *B* be two points of reference, and *P* a point to be located with respect to *A* and *B*. The five most common methods are:

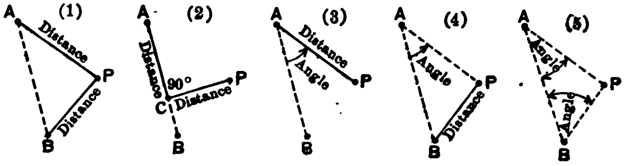

FIG. 8a.

1. By the two distances *AP* and *BP*.

2. By the distances *AC* and *CP* when the angle at *C* is 90°. (*CB* may be used in place of *AC*.)

3. By the angle at *A* and the distance *AP*. (Or the angle at *B* and the distance *BP*.)

4. By the angle at *A* and the distance *BP*. (Or the angle at *B* and the distance *AP*.)

5. By two angles, one at *A*, the other at *B*.

Notice that in the first two methods no angles are measured, and that in the first method no distances are measured, the distance from *A* to *B* being known.

Compare the fourth method with the third, since in each method one angle and one distance are measured.

Two other methods used for locating a point are:

6. By the intersection of two straight lines between four known points *A*, *B*, *C*, and *D*.

7. By two angles taken at the point to be located, and formed by lines to three known points *E*, *F*, and *G*.

In these two methods no distances are measured, although of course the distances between the given points of reference are known. The seventh method is the only one of all seven methods in which an angle is measured *at the point to be located.*

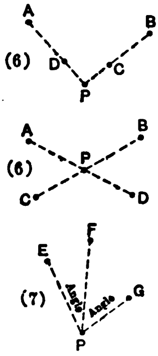

FIG. 8b.

Remark. A large part of surveying consists in locating two or more points or stations with respect to each other, and then locating boundary lines, houses, roads, streams, and other details with respect to these stations. It is simply performing on a large scale many of the familiar operations of the drafting-room, using the tape in place of a scale, and a transit in place of a protractor.

9. Surveying,—General Methods. The work of the surveyor may be divided into three parts: (1) *Field Work;* (2) *Office Work;* (3) *Care and Adjustment of Instruments.*

(*a*) FIELD WORK. The primary operations in field work are: (1) *Measuring distances* (Chaps. IV and V); (2) *Measuring angles* (Chaps. VIII–X); and (3) *Recording field notes* (Chaps. III and XV). Some of the things which the surveyor has to do and which involve these three primary operations may be outlined as follows:

(4) *Establishing points and lines of reference* with respect to which all details of the survey are located (Chaps. XI and XII).

(5) *Locating details* of the survey with respect to the reference-points and lines referred to in (4) (details such as boundary-lines, streets, buildings, fences, rivers, bridges, and other important features of the tract surveyed) (Chaps. XIII and XIV).

(6) *Staking out* roads, boundaries, buildings, masonry structures, and other details, the reverse of (5) (Chap. XVII).

(7) *Establishing* parallel lines, perpendiculars, measuring to inaccessible points, measuring inaccessible distances, running straight lines through obstacles, and doing other special work depending upon geometrical or trigonometrical constructions (Chaps. VII and XVIII).

(8) *Determining the relative elevations* of points (Leveling, Chaps. XIX–XXII).

9. *Making topographic surveys* in which horizontal and vertical measurements are combined (Chap. XXVII).

(*b*) OFFICE WORK. The indoor work of the surveyor consists chiefly of (1) *drawing*, and (2) *computing.* The drawing consists mainly in plotting measurements to scale, and therefore, to a large extent, in reversing on paper the operations in the field. The computing is of two kinds (1) that made for purposes of plotting, and (2) that made in order to obtain necessary data and information concerning the tract surveyed. Some of the things done in the office, which are treated in detail in Part II, may be outlined as follows:

(1) *Working up field notes* preparatory to plotting.

(2) *Plotting reference points and lines* which form the skeleton of the map.

(3) *Plotting details* by measurements from the reference points and lines referred to in (2).

(4) *Finishing up the map*, tracing, lettering, and blue-printing.

(5) *Calculating bearings*, latitudes and departures, unmeasured distances and angles, adjusting measurements, balancing errors, and making other computations necessary for plotting.

(6) *Calculating areas*, dividing up land, calculating angles and distances to be laid off in the field, and making computations to obtain all other data which may be desired.

(7) *Preparing level notes* for plotting.

(8) *Plotting profiles*, contour lines, and other level notes.

(9) *Finishing up profiles.*

(10) *Calculating grades*, cut and fill, and making other earthwork computations.

(*c*) THE CARE AND ADJUSTMENT OF INSTRUMENTS implies a thorough acquaintance with the instruments themselves; for the most part this must be gained in the field,—not from books. There is much, however, concerning the construction of surveying instruments which is not evident from inspection, and there are certain directions for their care and adjustment which should also be given. This information will be found in Part III.

10. Important Questions in Surveying which arise in connection with the field work are: (1) Degree of accuracy required; (2) Methods to be used; (3) Instruments to be used; (4) Errors, their sources, relative importance, and prevention; (5) Speed; (6) Systematizing the work; (7) Justifiable cost of the survey. These questions are closely related to each other, and depend to a large extent on the purpose for which a survey is made.

11. The Purpose of a Survey. The following illustrations indicate how the purpose of a survey helps to determine the degree of accuracy required and to decide other questions suggested in the preceding article.

Illustrations. A particular survey may be for the purpose of making a rough map, plotted to small scale, say 1 inch = 200 feet. The points will not be plotted nearer than $\frac{1}{100}$th of an inch; hence it is useless to take measurements nearer than to the nearest two feet.

Another survey may be for a map also to small scale, but exact measurements are wanted and will be printed on the map. Accurate measurements must be made accordingly.

A survey is made of a farm worth $20 an acre. The value of the land does not warrant great expense, probably not more than 10 to 25 cents per acre: but very accurate work costs money; hence very accurate work cannot be done, and the method used would be a compass survey or some other quick method.

A survey is made of a city lot worth $1000 a front foot. Every fraction of a foot is valuable; hence time and expense are not spared in getting an accurate survey.

A surveyor stakes out a dirt road; he sets the stakes as nearly on line and gives the corresponding grades as nearly as he can without wasting time in splitting hairs. If, however, he is giving curb-line and grade for a permanent pavement, the work must be done with greater precision.

12. Errors in Surveying. It is essential that the student, early in his course, should learn to distinguish between the different kinds of errors in surveying, to recognize their relative importance, and to use the customary methods of prevention, correction, and distribution. This subject is at once so large and so important that the whole of the next chapter is devoted to it.

13. Accuracy in Surveying. As indicated in Art. 11, p. 6, the purpose of a survey and the value of the land largely determine the accuracy needed in the field work. In addition, the surveyor may be handicapped by rough country, too short a time for work, too small a party, poor instruments, bad weather, and many other unfavorable conditions.

(*a*) *Limits of error*, therefore, cannot be given once for all. Before beginning a survey a surveyor should, if possible, establish limits of error for himself, i.e., how close to read angles, how accurately to measure distances. In this he is guided by his own experience and that of others. He should know what is considered good work under given conditions. Rules for limits of error, however, cannot be applied blindly. The best surveyor is not he who is extremely accurate in all his work, but he who does it just accurately enough for the purpose without waste of time or money.

(*b*) *Consistent accuracy.* In fixing limits of error for angles and distances, have the two consistent. There is no use in measuring angles accurately and corresponding distances roughly, or *vice versa.* Measure one as carefully or as roughly as the other.

Not all the work of a survey is done with the same precision. Transit lines, since they form the basis of all measurements, are usually run with care, for an error in angle or distance affects the whole survey, but an error in the angle or in the distance to a corner of a building, for example, affects only the location of that corner and not the whole survey. If land is valuable, boundaries are usually located with more care than buildings and other details for obvious reasons. *Make the precision of each step in the field work correspond to the importance of that step.*

14. Speed in surveying depends to a large extent on skill in handling instruments. Equally important are:

(1) Planning the survey and laying out the work. A little foresight in the choice of methods, choice of instruments, choice of stations, and the use of common sense in deciding simila questions will save time.

(2) Working with consistent accuracy. Much time is wasted, not only by students but by experienced surveyors, in needless refinements.

(3) Systematizing the work in order to avoid delays and to save unnecessary operations.

Speed is not necessarily the result of hurrying; it is more apt to be the result of economizing time along the lines suggested in this article.

15. System in surveying not only economizes time but diminishes the chances of error. There are many things in handling instruments and in other operations of field work which can be done always in the same way. If one is systematic, much of this work becomes second nature, and mistakes are thus avoided. Even when a mistake has been made one will often become conscious of it because of the violation of some fixed habit and so can find the error and correct it. For similar reasons system is equally valuable in recording notes and in office computations, and much of the value of a young surveyor's services lies in his knowledge of his employer's system. and in his ability to work in that system.

16. Equipment. The equipment needed both for field *work and for* office work is described in Part III.

CHAPTER II

ERRORS

In the first part of this chapter the aim is to define the different kinds of error, and to show how these errors affect measurements; also to explain how the most probable or best value of a quantity may be obtained, and how the precision of measurements may be judged. In the second part of the chapter a brief review of the method of least squares is given in so far as that method is likely to be used in plane surveying.

Methods of preventing or eliminating errors, and the relative importance of errors from different sources, will be treated more in detail in subsequent chapters.

17. Error. No measurement in surveying can be exact. The difference between a measurement and the true value of the quantity measured is the *true* error of that measurement. *The true error of a measurement is never known,* for the true value of the quantity measured is never known. How then can a surveyor judge of the precision of his measurements, and how can he determine the most probable or best values of the quantities measured? These are the main questions to be considered in any discussion of errors.

18. Sources of Error. (1) Natural; (2) Instrumental; (3) Personal.

(1) *Natural.* Temperature, wind, refraction, action of gravity, obstacles to measurement.

(2) *Instrumental.* Imperfections in the construction and adjustment of instruments. Expansion, contraction, and other possible changes in the instruments.

(3) *Personal.* Imperfections of human sight and touch. Actual mistakes.

19. Three Classes of Errors. (1) *Mistakes;* (2) *Constant errors;* (3) *Accidental errors.* If a measurement of a quantity is greater than the true value of that quantity, the error is *plus;* if less than the true value, the error is *minus.* The total error is not due to any one cause, but it is the *algebraic* sum of errors due to different causes.

Mistakes are errors which have their source in the mind of the observer.

Constant errors are those which occur from well-understood causes and can be eliminated.

Accidental errors are those which remain after mistakes and constant errors have been eliminated.

An accidental error is as likely to be plus as minus, but a constant error under given conditions always has the same sign and the same magnitude.

Thus, for example, if a tape is ¼″ too long because of high temperature, this is a constant error, because under the same conditions, i.e., the same temperature, the tape will always be ¼″ too long. Under *changed* conditions, i.e., low temperature, the tape may become too short; then the sign of the error is changed. This illustrates how a *constant* error from a given source may be plus or it may be minus, but under the *same* conditions it cannot be plus *or* minus. Suppose, on the other hand, that an observer in measuring between two points makes an error, in reading the tape, so small that he cannot detect it. This *accidental* error is as likely to be plus as minus, and if he repeats the measurement he is liable to make a similar error and that, too, is as likely to be plus as minus.

If a measurement is repeated a number of times under precisely the same conditions, the *constant* error is the same for each measurement, both in sign and magnitude. It is not reduced or affected in any way by taking the mean of all the measurements. The accidental error of each measurement, on the contrary, is as likely to be plus as minus, and the accidental error of the mean, therefore, is likely to be less than the accidental error of any one measurement. Theoretically, that part of the total error due to accidental errors would entirely disappear from the means of an indefinitely large series of observations, taken under precisely the same conditions; that part due to constant errors would still remain.

(*a*) *Illustrations.* A few illustrations of the three classes of errors will help to make the distinctions clear:

Mistakes. Errors due to carelessness, inexperience, and mental confusion, such as mistakes in reading the tape, the vernier, or the level-rod; keeping the wrong count of tape-lengths; turning the wrong tangent screw; sighting at the wrong station.

Constant errors. Errors due to such well-understood sources as temperature, sag, pull, imperfect graduation, and imperfect adjustments of instruments.

Accidental errors. Errors due to imperfections of human sight and touch which render it impossible to make exact readings, to know when the cross-hair exactly bisects a signal, to handle instruments delicately; sudden and imperceptible changes in an instrument itself; indeterminate *variations* in pull, temperature, and certain other sources of constant errors.

(*b*) *Remark.* When mistakes are very small it is sometimes difficult to distinguish them from accidental errors. It is to be noticed also that while temperature is a source of constant error, *variations* of temperature too small to be measured may be classed as accidental errors; the same is true of small variations in some of the other sources of constant errors.

Notice also that constant errors from different sources tend to balance each other when some are plus and some are minus; as, for example, when the error in chaining due to high temperature tends to balance error due to sag. Again, constant errors from the same source may tend to balance each other in the mean of measurements taken under *different* conditions, as, for example, when, in chaining, part of the measurements of a line are made when the temperature is above the standard temperature for the tape, and part when it is below.

(*c*) *Cumulative and compensating errors.* When the value of a quantity is found by adding together the measurements of several smaller quantities, any source of constant error becomes a source of *cumulative* errors, because, under given conditions, a constant error always has the same sign; on the other hand, any source of accidental error becomes a source of *compensating* errors, since for each of the separate measurements the sign is as likely to be plus as minus. *Compensating* errors tend to balance each other, while the cumulative errors from any one source affect the total result in the same way.

(*d*) *Illustrations.* Any constant error in the length of a tape becomes cumulative when the tape is applied several times in measuring a line, i.e., when the tape-lengths are added together, for the total error due to that cause will vary in direct proportion to the number of tape-lengths. On the other hand, errors which occur in marking where the end of the tape comes each time that it is stretched are compensating, for the chances are that if one tape-length is marked too long the error will be balanced by another tape-length marked too short.

Errors due to the settling of the instrument in leveling are cumulative, because the effect is always the same: it makes the calculated elevations of succeeding points too high. Errors due to the difficulty of telling when the cross-hair exactly bisects the target are compensating.

20. Discrepancies. In ordinary surveying most of the distances, angles, and elevations are measured but once. An important measurement, however, is often repeated, and if the discrepancy is too large the quantity is measured a third time.

A large discrepancy between two measurements of the same quantity indicates a *mistake* in the work, but it does not follow that because the discrepancy is small the *error* is small. The discrepancy is not an error, it is simply the difference between two measurements each of which contains an error that *may* be very large. This is an important point too often overlooked.

(*a*) *Illustration.* A surveyor measures a line, the true length of which is 400 ft., with a tape which, unknown to him, is ½ ft. too short. The first time he gets 402 ft. and the second time 402.05. The discrepancy is only 0.05 ft., indicating that he has made no serious mistake, but the true error is 2 ft. for the first measurement and 2.05 ft. for the second.

21. Elimination of Constant Errors. The discrepancy between the two measurements in the preceding illustration did not indicate the true error, because of a *constant* error in the length of the tape which no amount of repeating the measurement under the same conditions could reveal. The surveyor should have known that his tape was ½ ft. too short, and have corrected his measurements accordingly; then the discrepancy would have indicated more nearly the precision of his work. This illustrates why it is the first business of the surveyor to eliminate constant errors as far as practicable. A mistake, as revealed by a discrepancy, may then be corrected by again repeating the measurement. Constant errors and mistakes having been eliminated only accidental errors remain, and these may be reduced by taking the arithmetical mean.

As pointed out on p. 11, under certain conditions constant errors become *cumulative,* while accidental errors are *compensating;* hence the obvious importance of eliminating constant errors in chaining, in leveling, and in all similar work involving the summation of separate measurements.

22. Prevention and Elimination of Errors. (*a*) *Mistakes* are best discovered by systematic checks. *Checking* work, an essential part of all surveying, consists in comparing results with known conditions.

Illustrations. The discrepancy between duplicate measurements should be small; the sum of two or more measurements should equal another measurement, as, for example, when the sum of two angles should equal a third angle; the sum of two or more measurements should fulfill some known condition, as, for example, the interior angles of a triangle should add up 180°.

(*b*) *Constant errors* are prevented or eliminated partly by systematic methods of field work, partly by calculation and correction.

Illustrations. Errors due to imperfect adjustment can be eliminated by certain systematic methods in the use of instruments, such, for example, as the method of double reverse or making backsights and foresights equal in leveling. Reading both verniers on a transit eliminates error due to eccentricity. Each of these examples illustrates how *by taking observations in pairs* a plus error from a certain source of constant error may be offset by a minus error from the same source.

Errors in chaining due to temperature can be calculated and corrected; so can errors due to sag and pull, though it is better to prevent them by taking proper precautions. (See Chapter V.)

(*c*) *Accidental errors* cannot be eliminated, but they follow a mathematical law,—the law of probability,—according to which they may be greatly reduced by comparing the results of a series of measurements. (See p. 15.)

23. Relative Importance of Errors from Different Sources. It is evident that constant and cumulative errors as a rule are more important than accidental and compensating errors, and that the more measurements there are of a quantity the less the mean is affected by accidental errors. Beyond this it is difficult to make any general statement. Any error large enough to be *appreciable* should usually be avoided or corrected but appreciable is a relative term, and an error which is appreciable under certain conditions is inappreciable under other conditions. Thus for example, the error in chaining due to changes in temperature is an appreciable error provided the precision required warrants the use of a thermometer, otherwise it may be considered inappreciable. Errors in plane surveying so small that they are ignored would often be considered of great magnitude in geodetic surveying.

(*a*) *Remark* The more the surveyor knows about the sources and nature of errors the more likely he is to judge correctly of their relative importance He must know that some sources of constant or cumulative errors are more important than others, and that certain errors, though they may be compensating, are not to be ignored. A more thorough treatment of these questions is given in the chapters on *Errors in Linear Measurement*, *Errors in Angular Measurement*, and *Errors in Leveling.*

24. Probable Values and the Adjustment of Measurements Probable values are found from observed values. When the relations between observed values are complicated a knowledge of the "theory of least squares" is necessary. Some simple cases which frequently occur in surveying may be given, however, without entering upon that subject.

There are two general cases, viz.: (1) When the measurements are of one and the same quantity; (2) When the measurements are of different but related quantities.

(*a*) *Several measurements of the same quantity.* The most probable value of the quantity is the arithmetical mean of all the measurements, *provided the measurements are made with equal care.*

Illustrations. Three measurements of a line made with equal care are 160.01, 160.1, and 160.03. The most probable value is $(160.01+160.1+160.03) \div 3 = 160.047$. Four measurements of an angle are 30° 29′, 30° 31′, 30° 31′, and 30° 30′. The most probable value is $(30^\circ\ 29' + 30^\circ\ 31' + 30^\circ\ 31' + 30^\circ\ 30') \div 4 = 30^\circ\ 30'\ 15''$.

(*b*) *Measurements of several related quantities.* When quantities are related because of *two or more* conditions which they must fulfill, the problem of finding the most probable values of these related quantities properly belongs to the "theory of least squares." When, however, there is only *one* condition fixing the relations between the quantities, the most probable values, as a rule, can be easily found. Two cases under this head which often arise in surveying are: (1) when the sum of several measurements should equal an *exact* quantity, and (2) when the sum should equal some other *measurement.* In the first case the difference between the sum and the *exact* quantity is a true error; in the second case the difference between the sum and a *measured* quantity is a *discrepancy.*

(*c*) Case. I. *When the sum of several measurements should equal an exact quantity distribute the true error equally among all the measurements.* The results will be the most probable values of the measurements.

Illustration. The three angles of a triangle add up 179° 59′. The *exact* quantity fixing the relations between the measurements is 180°. The *true* error is 1′ or 60″. Hence add to each of the three angles one third of 60″, or 20″.

In the same way the most probable values of the interior angles of any polygon may be found by finding the true error of their sum according to the rule on p. 119, and distributing this error equally among all the angles. Notice, however, that the true error of any one angle is not known.

(*d*) Case II. *When the sum of several measurements should equal some other measurement distribute the amount of the discrepancy equally among all of the measurements, including that one to which the sum should be equal.* In this case the check measurement (i.e., the total measurement) cannot be exact, and, if all the measurements are made with the same care, it is likely to contain an error equal to that contained in each of the smaller measurements. *If, however, the correction is added to each of the smaller measurements, it must be subtracted from the total measurement and vice versa.*

(*e*) *Illustration.* If in the illustration of Case I the three angles had been the three parts of a *fourth* angle instead of the three angles of a triangle, and if the measured value of the *fourth* angle were 180°, then 180° − 179° 59′ = 1′ = 60″ is the discrepancy. The correction is 60″ ÷ 4 = 15″ instead of 20″, and this correction is added to each of the three smaller angles but subtracted from the total angle. The most probable value of the latter is, therefore, 180° − 15″ = 179° 59′ 45″.

(*f*) *Illustration.* The measured value of an angle is 40°. When divided into two angles the measurements are respectively 24° 30′ and 15° 29′. The discrepancy is 40° − (24° 30′ + 15° 29′) = 1′ = 60″. Three measurements of equal care are involved, hence the correction is 60″ ÷ 3 = 20″ and the most probable values are 24° 30′ 20″, 15° 29′ 20″, and 39° 59′ 40″.

(*g*) *Remark.* The essential difference between Case I and Case II is *that in* Case I the quantity used as a check has a *true* value which cannot be changed, while in Case II the check value is itself a measurement, and liable, therefore, to contain an error equal to that contained in each of the smaller measurements. The method in Case II does not hold for a number of linear measurements of different lengths.

25. The Theory of Errors or Method of Least Squares* The "method of least squares" is a method of determining the most probable or best result of observations. It is based on the assumption that accidental errors will entirely disappear from the mean of an indefinitely large series of independent observations of the same quantity made under precisely the same conditions, and that therefore *if constant errors are eliminated from these observations* the arithmetical mean is the most *probable value* of that quantity. In practice, however, (1) an *indefinitely* large number of observations cannot be made, (2) no two observations can be made under *exactly* the same conditions, and (3) constant errors cannot be *entirely* eliminated. It follows, therefore, that the most *probable value* of a quantity is strictly a *theoretical* value, and that the greater the number of observations, and the more completely constant errors are eliminated from these observations, the nearer the most *probable* value of a quantity will approach the *true* value as a limit. It never reaches this limit (or if it did, there would be no means of knowing it), and therefore, no matter how accurate the observations may be, the probable value always contains an error.

(*a*) *A residual* is the difference between the value of a quantity as obtained by a single observation and the most probable value of that quantity as obtained by a number of observations. In any given case there are as many residuals as there are observations.

(*b*) *The probable error* of a quantity is a magnitude such that the chances are even that the true error contained in that quantity is greater or less than the probable error.

Illustration. A series of measurements of the length of a line gives for the mean or most probable value 528.91 ft., and the probable error of that mean, determined by a method to be explained later, is ±0.034 ft. This means that it is an even wager that the true error contained in 528.91 ft. does not exceed ±0.034 ft. Notice that this is quite different from saying that the true error does not exceed ±0.034 ft.

26. Use made of Most Probable Values and Probable Errors. *Most probable values* are used in surveying for the adjustment of measurements, and *probable errors* to indicate the precision of measurements.

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* It is the purpose of this article to give only so much of the theory of errors as may be needed in the simple cases which arise in plane surveying. For a more comprehensive treatment of the subject consult one of the standard works on the method of least squares.

Most probable value. The simplest and most common cases of adjusting measurements by finding the arithmetical mean have already been given on p. 13.

(*a*) *Probable error of the mean.* Suppose that a second series of measurements of the length of the line in the preceding article gives 528.94 ft. for the mean and ±0.065 ft. for the probable error of that mean. The results of the two sets of measurements are:

Most probable value	Probable error
528.91	±0.034
528.94	±0.065

The probable error of the mean of all the measurements in the first series is approximately half that of the mean as determined by the second series. This indicates that the precision of the first result (528.91) may be regarded as twice that of the second (528.94).

(*b*) The *probable error of a single observation* is found from the residuals of a number of observations, as explained in the next article. If it is necessary to take a number of observations in order to determine the probable error of a single observation, why not be content to determine the probable error of the mean of all the observations and stop there? Of what use is the probable error of a single observation? The answer is that, having determined the probable error of a single observation under given conditions, this probable error indicates the precision which may be expected in any single observation made under the same conditions.

Illustration. In measuring an angle a number of times the probable error of a single observation is found to be ±8″. (See p. 19.) This means that for any other angle measured by the same observer with the same transit under practically the same conditions a probable error may be expected of about ±8″. If this is well within the allowable error, the observer is justified in proceeding with single observations of all angles that can be measured under the given conditions.

(*c*) *Probable errors and weights.* Probable errors afford a means of finding the weights which should be given different sets of observations, for it has been found that the weights of observations vary inversely as the squares of their probable errors.

Illustration. On p. 19 the probable error of the mean of the first set of observations is 2.8″, and of the second set 4.6″. Hence the weights are as $\frac{1}{(2.8)^2}$ to $\frac{1}{(4.6)^2}$, or about as 3 to 1.

27. To Determine Probable Errors. The formulas given below for calculating probable errors are based on the following assumptions:

(1) That small errors are more frequent than large ones.

(2) That positive and negative errors are equally frequent.

(3) That very large errors do not occur.

Additional points to be kept in mind are: (1) Constant errors must be eliminated as far as practicable; (2) Observations should be made under as nearly the same conditions as possible. (3) At least three observations should be made. If there are only two observations, the *discrepancy* will indicate the precision as truly as will the probable error. The more observations there are the more significance may be attached to the probable error, although a small number of observations will give surprisingly satisfactory results if the other conditions already mentioned are fulfilled.

(*a*) *Remark.* The student is warned against attaching importance to probable errors unless he is reasonably sure that the above conditions are fulfilled, especially that pertaining to the elimination of constant errors. Since the method of least squares is based on the arithmetical mean as the most probable value, and since, as pointed out on p. 10, constant errors cannot be eliminated by taking the mean of observations, the more completely the constant errors are eliminated, or corrected, the more applicable is the method of least squares. If, for example, a tape is too long, all measurements made with it will be too short, and there is no magic in least squares which will correct the results. The probable error in this case loses its significance unless each of the separate measurements from the mean of which the probable error is derived is first corrected for the constant error in the length of the tape.

28. Formulas for Probable Errors.*

Let n = the number of the observations;

v = the difference between any one observation and the mean of all the observations, i.e., the *residual error* (p. 15);

E = the probable error of a single observation;

E_0 = the probable error of the mean of all the observations;

Σ = a symbol signifying *sum of*.

Then, from the theory of least squares,

$$E = 0.6745\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma v^2}{n-1}}, \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{0.6745}{\sqrt{n-1}}\sqrt{\Sigma v^2}; \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (1)$$

$$E_0 = \frac{E}{\sqrt{n}} = 0.6745\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma v^2}{n(n-1)}}, \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{0.6745}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}}\sqrt{\Sigma v^2}. \quad (2)$$

Let Σp = sum of the weights and R_0 the probable error of the general or weighted mean; then

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* See any treatise on the *Theory of Least Squares.*

$$R_0 = 0.6745\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma pv^2}{(n-1)\Sigma p}}. \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (3)$$

Let R_s = the probable error of the sum or difference of several independent quantities $z, z_1, z_2, \ldots z_n$.

$r, r_1, r_2, \ldots r_n$ = the probable errors of $z_1, z_2, \ldots z_n$, respectively.

$$R_s = \sqrt{r^2 + r_1^2 + r_2^2 \ldots + r_n^2}. \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (4)$$

The probable error of a product Az, where A is a known quantity, z an observed quantity, and r the probable error of z, is

$$R_p^2 = A^2r^2, \quad \text{or} \quad R_p = Ar. \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (5)$$

Let SS_1 = an area found by multiplying together the measured sides S and S_1;

r and r_1 = the probable errors of S and S_1 respectively. Then the probable error of the computed area SS_1 is

$$R_a = \sqrt{S^2r_1^2 + S_1^2r^2}. \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (6)$$

29. Abbreviated Methods. In applying the formulas of the preceding article approximate values will often be all that are required. For this purpose the two following equations may be substituted for equations (1) and (2) respectively:

$$E = \frac{0.8453\Sigma v}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}}. \quad . \quad (7) \qquad E_0 = \frac{0.8453\Sigma v}{n\sqrt{n-1}}. \quad . \quad (8)$$

When there are only two observations and D is the discrepancy between them,

$E = 0.47D$ or roughly $\frac{1}{2}D$ and $E_0 = 0.337D$ or roughly $\frac{1}{3}D$. (9)

In formulas (1) and (2) work may be saved by using the coefficients given in the following table:

n	Single Observations, $\frac{0.6745}{\sqrt{n-1}}$	Series of Observations, $\frac{0.6745}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}}$	n	Single Observations, $\frac{0.6745}{\sqrt{n-1}}$	Series of Observations, $\frac{0.6745}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}}$
			11	0.2133	0.0643
2	0.6745	0.4769	12	0.2034	0.0587
3	0.4769	0.2754	13	0.1947	0.0540
4	0.3894	0.1947	14	0.1871	0.0500
5	0.3372	0.1508	15	0.1803	0.0465
6	0.3016	0.1231	16	0.1742	0.0435
7	0.2754	0.1041	17	0.1686	0.0409
8	0.2549	0.0901	18	0.1636	0.0386
9	0.2385	0.0795	19	0.1590	0.0365
10	0.2248	0.0711	20	0.1547	0.0346

A table of squares and square roots greatly facilitates the work. Other tables similar to that given above will be found in standard text-books on least squares.

30. Illustration of the Method of Least Squares Applied to Angles.*

First Observer				Second Observer			
No.	Angle	v	v^2	No.	Angle	v	v^2
1	60° 20′ 20″	4	16	1	60° 20′ 50″	14	196
2	30	6	36	2	21 00	24	576
3	10	14	196	3	20 40	4	16
4	20	4	16	4	20	16	256
5	40	16	256	5	30	6	36
6	10	14	196	6	10	26	676
7	20	4	16	7	20	16	256
8	40	16	256	8	21 00	24	576

First Observer:

8)190 $\Sigma v^2=988$

Mean = 60° 20′ 24″ −

$$E_0=\frac{0.6745}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}}\sqrt{\Sigma v^2}$$

$$=0.0901\times(\pm 31.4)=\pm 2.8''$$

$$E=E_0\sqrt{n}=\pm 2.8''\times 2.8=\pm 8.0'$$

Second Observer:

8)162 170 $\Sigma v^2=2588$

Mean = 60° 20′ 36″ +

$$E_0=\frac{0.6745}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}}\sqrt{\Sigma v^2}$$

$$=0.0901\times(\pm 50.9)=\pm 4.6''$$

$$E=E_0\sqrt{n}=\pm 4.6''\times 2.8=\pm 12.9''$$

Illustration. The results given above were obtained by two different observers using different transits. The probable error of the mean in the first case is ±2.8″, while in the second it is ±4.6″. This indicates that the relative precision of the work of the two observers is as 2.8 to 4.6, or nearly as 5 to 3.

To find the most probable value of the angle by comparing the mean values of the two series of observations it is necessary to weight their mean values. Since weights are inversely proportional to the squares of probable errors, p. 16, the weights are as $\frac{1}{2.8^2}$ to $\frac{1}{4.6^2}$, or nearly as 3 to 1.

The most probable value is $60° \, 20' + \frac{24''\times 3+36''\times 1}{4} = 60° \, 20' \, 27''$.

The probable error of the above value may be obtained as follows:

$24''=z_1$ and $36''=z_2$, $\pm 2.8''=r_1$ and $\pm 4.6''=r_2$, $\frac{3}{4}=A_1$ and $\frac{1}{4}=A_2$.

$$\text{From (5)}\begin{cases}\text{Prob. error of } A_1z_1 \text{ or } 24\times\frac{3}{4}=A_1r_1=(\frac{3}{4}\times\pm 2.8'')=\pm 2.1''=R_p,\\ \text{“} \quad \text{“} \quad \text{“} \quad A_2z_2 \text{ or } 36\times\frac{1}{4}=A_2r_2=(\frac{1}{4}\times\pm 4.6'')=\pm 1.15''=R_{p1}.\end{cases}$$

The probable error of the sum of $(24''\times\frac{3}{4})+(36''\times\frac{1}{4})$ is, from (4),

$$R_s=\sqrt{R_p^2+R_{p1}^2}=\sqrt{2.1^2+1.15^2}=\pm 2.4''.$$

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* For an illustration of the method of least squares applied to linear measurements, see p. 59.

CHAPTER III

FIELD NOTES

In this chapter are given the general directions and suggestions which hold good for *all* kinds of field notes. In Chapter XV will be found special directions for keeping the *notes of a transit survey*, and also some illustrations of the forms in common use. Forms of notes for stadia surveying, topographic surveying, compass surveying, and leveling are given in the corresponding chapters on those subjects.

31. Field Notes. Field notes are written records of field work, *made at the time the work is done;* notes made afterwards, or notes copied from field notes, may be useful, but they are not field notes. Field notes must be as complete and accurate as possible, for the most careful and reliable field work will be of little or no value if the record of that work is unreliable. That is why engineers often prefer to keep the field notes themselves rather than trust them to a less experienced assistant. The student must realize at the beginning of the course that not only is recording field notes as important as any part of the field work, but it is perhaps the most difficult thing he will be called upon to do, and will require all the alertness, care, accuracy, and intelligence which he can command.

Note. To keep field notes satisfactorily one must have had long experience in practical work. It is not expected that the student can do it at the outset, indeed comparatively few men in actual practice are good note-keepers, but this is all the more reason why instructor and student alike should pay special attention to perfecting the student's ability in note-keeping.

32. Methods of Keeping Notes. Methods of note-keeping are different for different kinds of work, and will be given in detail as the work may require. It must be remembered, however, that there may be many methods equally good for a given kind of work, that an engineer must choose the one best adapted to his needs, and that as a rule of the many good methods in common use, only one or two illustrations are given in this book for each kind of work.

33. Field Notes—General Suggestions.

(1) Use a good note-book that will stand hard usage.

(2) Use a hard sharp pencil—3 H or 4 H; never a pencil soft enough to blur.

(3) The notes should read from left to right, and from the bottom up as in working drawings. In printing vertically hold the right-hand edge of the book towards you.

(4) Trust nothing to memory; when in doubt as to whether or not an item will be needed, put it in.

(5) Constantly ask yourself what will be needed in your notes in the office work. To answer this you must know the purpose of the work; if it is a survey and a map is to be plotted from the notes, what the map is to be used for, and what, therefore, should go on the map; if leveling, what is to be done with the data obtained.

(6) If a page of notes becomes illegible, make a copy of it while the data are fresh in mind, but mark it "COPY," and preserve the original page.

(7) The notes of a survey should be preceded by a title-page, and if there are many pages, there should be an index. At the top of each page print a descriptive title so that one can tell at a glance what the notes on that page are about.

(8) Notes should be signed each day by the note-keeper.

(9) It is usually desirable to at least indicate all the numerical work of the calculations and reductions made in the field. If the numerical work itself is done in the note-book, it should not be allowed to obscure the main notes, and hence it is often best to put such computations on separate pages and cross-reference them. This does *not* mean that numerical work is to be *scribbled* in the note-book at random; on the contrary, it should be kept in as neat and systematic a manner as any other portion of the notes.

34. The Three Parts of Field Notes. Field notes like working drawings may be subdivided into three parts:

(1) *Numerical values.* Records of all measurements (angles and distances).

(2) *Sketches.* Records of outlines, relative locations, topographic features.

(3) *Explanatory notes.* All notes of an explanatory nature

which make clear those sketches and numerical values that might otherwise be obscure or misunderstood. Also data that may be of future value, such as names of the surveying party, any special or unusual conditions under which the work was done, equipment, weather, and date.

35. Numerical Values.

(1) *Make plain figures.* Words can be guessed at, but not figures.

(2) *Make large figures.* The tendency of the beginner is to make his numerals too small.

(3) *Never write one figure on top of another.* A constant source of annoyance and error. If, for example, a 5 is written and then a 7 on top of it, how is one to know which is correct?

(4) *Do not try to change one figure into another;* for example, a 3 into a 5 or a 2 into a 3. The reason is obvious.

(5) *Erasing.* Avoid erasing. Draw a line through an incorrect value and write the correct value directly above or near by. This will show that a mistake was noticed in the field and corrected, thus giving double weight to the corrected value, while erasing or changing a figure leaves the impression of "doctoring" the notes. When it becomes necessary to alter a sketch or to make any part of the notes clearer erasing is justifiable, provided nothing is lost which would give added weight to the notes.

(6) *Measurements or sketches.* If measurements are put directly on the sketches, make it clear where they belong. The use of dimension-lines, as in working drawings, is often necessary. When the space on the sketch is too small for figures, a measurement may be placed to one side, and an arrow drawn to indicate where the measurement should go.

(7) *Recording measurements.* In recording measurements as they are being taken in the field there are two sources of trouble: (1) Measurements omitted because not taken. (2) Measurements misunderstood as they are called out.

(1) The note-keeper must therefore be on the alert to see that every measurement that should be recorded is taken and that every measurement taken is recorded.

(2) The note-keeper should *repeat*, loudly enough to be distinctly heard, all measurements which others may call out to him to record. Measurements not taken in the presence of the note-keeper should be given to him in writing. For example,

if the note-keeper is busy taking transit notes and the chainmen are at work elsewhere, they should report all measurements to him in writing at the first opportunity.

36. Sketches.

(1) *Scale.* Sketches are almost never made to scale; in fact it is usually necessary to exaggerate certain portions of the sketch for the sake of clearness.

(2) *Make sketches large, open, and clear.* Use the pages of the note-book generously—they are cheap compared with time wasted in deciphering crowded notes.

(3) *Use of straight-edge.* Sketches are made free-hand, but frequently time may be saved and the sketch greatly improved by using a straight-edge for the straight lines. A small triangle carried in the pocket will be found useful.

(4) *Angles.* The protractor is seldom used in the field; angles are either guessed at or no attempt is made to draw them true size.

(5) *Exaggeration of details,* or portions of a sketch drawn larger size at one side of the main sketch, or on another page. is often necessary.

(6) *What a sketch should show* must be determined on the spot by the note-keeper, and for the most part before he begins the sketch.

(7) *When to make a sketch.* In general, if measurements cannot be easily described, or if the description (in words) of a series of measurements would take more time or space than would be required for a sketch, make a sketch. Always make a sketch when it will settle beyond question any doubt which otherwise might arise in the interpretation of the notes.

37. Explanatory Notes.

(1) *Object.* To make clear that which is not perfectly evident from numerals and sketches, and to record such information concerning important features of the ground covered and the work done as might be of possible use later. In addition, to give for future reference names of party, date, weather, equipment, and special conditions under which the work was done.

(2) *Lettering.* The common practice is to print notes, using some good style of free-hand lettering. Compactness and legibility are gained by such lettering well done. In many cases ordinary handwriting can be used provided it is as legible as

good free-hand printing. One method used for free-hand lettering is given in the next article.

(3) *Place the notes* in vacant spaces where they will not interfere with or obscure numerals, dimension-lines, or sketches.

(4) *When needed.* Ask yourself in a given case if the dimensions you have put down, or the sketch you have made, could possibly need oral explanation should some one else use the notes. If in doubt, put the explanation in writing in the notes themselves.

38. Free-hand Lettering. The style of lettering recommended for field notes is the "single-stroke" lettering. It is a surprisingly easy system to learn, and it is especially adapted to rapid note-taking because of its simplicity. In this article the essential features of this system are given in so far as they apply to field notes. For a more thorough treatment of single-stroke lettering the student is referred to an excellent little book on that subject by Mr. Charles W. Reinhardt.*

The student is urged to practice until he can letter almost as rapidly as he can write. When he can do this and do it well he has acquired something of great value, not only for recording field notes but for other lines of work. Even a few hours' intelligent practice, in which the *direction and sequence* of the strokes are carefully observed, will yield results well worth attaining.

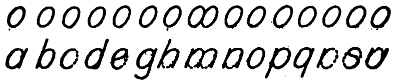

FIG. 38 (*a*).

(*a*) In Fig. 38 (*a*) it is seen that fifteen of the lower-case letters of the alphabet can be formed with a small ellipse as a basis; the other nine can be formed with straight lines. This method of forming letters, however, is not recommended, but is inserted here as introductory to a method somewhat similar. In Fig. 38 (*b*) this other method is shown.

(*b*) The methods given in this article for forming inclined letters hold good also for upright letters. Inclined letters, however, can be made more rapidly and with greater uniformity by the average man. In Fig. 38 (*b*) the arrows in the first and fourth rows indicate the directions of the strokes; in the second and fifth lines the completed letters are shown; in the third and sixth lines *incorrect* methods of forming letters are illustrated. The main points to keep in mind concerning the different letters are as follows:

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* Mr. Reinhardt's book on lettering (Engineering News Publishing Co., New York City) was one of the first to indicate the sequence and direction of the separate strokes by arrows, and it has done much to improve free-hand lettering among draftsmen throughout the country.

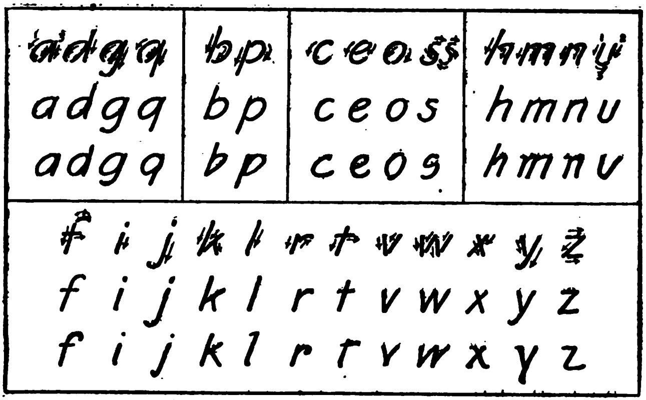

FIG. 38 (*b*).

(1) The *i*, *j*, *l*, and *c* are the only letters made with one continuous stroke.

(2) The strokes in each letter are as far as possible *downward*. The slope of the main stem with few exceptions is about 1 to 2½. [For height of letters see p. 29, Art. 38 (*f*).]

(3) The order or sequence of strokes is from left to right, except in *s*, *u*, *k*, *x*, and *z*.

(4) In the first group, *a*, *d*, *g*, and *q*, the only difference between the letters is in the third stroke. In each of these letters the second or middle stroke is flatter than the first in order that there may be a clear space between the second stroke and the vertical stem. In order to avoid the effect shown in the third row which comes from not doing this, it may be well for the beginner to exaggerate, somewhat, the "hump" in the first stroke and then make the second stroke almost straight.

(5) In the letters *b* and *p* the oval is wider at the top than at the bottom.

(6) The basis of each of the letters in the third group, *c*, *e*, *o*, and *s*, is an inclined ellipse. The *e* is made with two strokes;

if made with one it is apt to have a different slant from the other letters, as shown in the third line. Notice that the first stroke of the *s* is started in the opposite direction from that naturally expected. Some draftsmen prefer to make the *s* in two strokes instead of three as shown in the supplementary *s*. The *o* is made with two strokes each of which should begin and end almost horizontally in order that the two strokes may meet in a smooth curve and not in a sharp apex; this also gives proper width to the *o* without making it round.

(7) In the letters of the fourth group, *h, m, n,* and *u,* the first effort should be to get the vertical strokes parallel. The second stroke in *h, m,* and *n* should not be started too far up the first stroke, and it should make almost a sharp turn at the upper corner. The first stroke should not begin with a curve. Notice that the third stroke of the *u* is at the bottom, the other two strokes being made first to secure parallelism and proper width of letter.

(8) In the letters *g, q, b, p, j, l,* and *y* the portion above or below the main body of the letter is a little less than one half the total height of the letter; in the letter *t* it is still less.

(9) In the letter *k* the third stroke does *not* start at the intersection of the other two. Make the second stroke strike pretty near the bottom of the first and begin it well to the right so that the letter will not be too narrow. Notice that the second stroke of the *r* is *upward.*

(10) In the letters *v, w, x,* and *y* make the strokes in one direction almost vertical, and the strokes in the opposite direction at a considerable slant, so that the main axis of the letter may have the slope corresponding to that of other letters. The intersection of the two strokes in *x* is a little more than halfway up.

(11) In the letters *k, v, w, x, y,* and *z* make the angles at the intersection of lines clear and sharp.

(12) In the letters *g, j,* and *y* the stroke extending below the line is straight until just at the end it turns sharply to the left, forming a *small* hook.

(13) The cross-strokes in the *f* and *t* are on a line with the tops of most of the other letters.

(*c*) Good numerals are even more important than good letters in field notes: they must be made unmistakable. The main points to be kept in mind are:

(1) Make figures somewhat larger than lower-case letters. Reinhardt gives the height equal to that of capital letters, but this is rather large for field notes. [See Art. 38 (*f*).]

(2) In the 2 the down curve is *reversed* and the base is *straight*. Avoid the effect shown in the third line. Some draftsmen prefer an abrupt turn or angle in the down-stroke as shown in the supplementary 2.

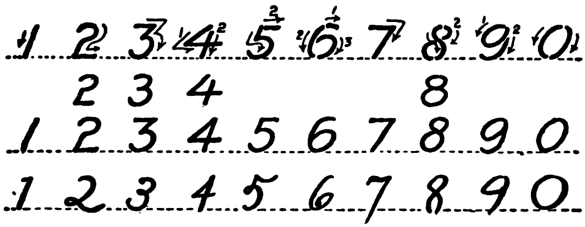

FIG. 38 (*c*).

(3) Of the two kinds of 3's that with its upper line horizontal and straight is perhaps the easier to make. The lower loop should begin with a sharp turn *upward*, and its height should be more than half the total height of the numeral.

(4) Of the two kinds of 4's that shown in the top row seems to be preferred. The first stroke begins at about 45°, and should extend more than half-way down the figure before turning into the horizontal, otherwise the top of the 4 will be too small as shown in the third line.

(5) In the 5 the first stroke should turn abruptly about two fifths of the way down, and extend almost horizontally for quite a little distance; it really curves slightly *above* the horizontal to form the upper portion of a loop similar to that of the 3. The second is *straight* and horizontal; make it fairly long.

(6) In the 6 the tendency is to make the lower loop too small.

(7) The 7 is formed by two straight lines,—no curves,—with the down-stroke at about 45°.

(8) In pencil the 8 is best made with two strokes. Sometimes it is convenient to form it with two ovals, the upper one being the smaller. In inking, the pen is lifted where the second stroke crosses the first.

(9) The 9 is an inverted 6, but the upper loop is nearly finished with one stroke. The tendency is to make the loop too small.

(10) The 0 is made with two strokes each of which begins and ends almost horizontally to give smoothness to the curve and width to the whole numeral without making it round.

Note. The student may find that in keeping field notes in pencil some of the numerals made in Fig. 38 (*c*) with two or more strokes can be made in one stroke. In making figures in ink, however, he will get better results to follow the strokes as given.

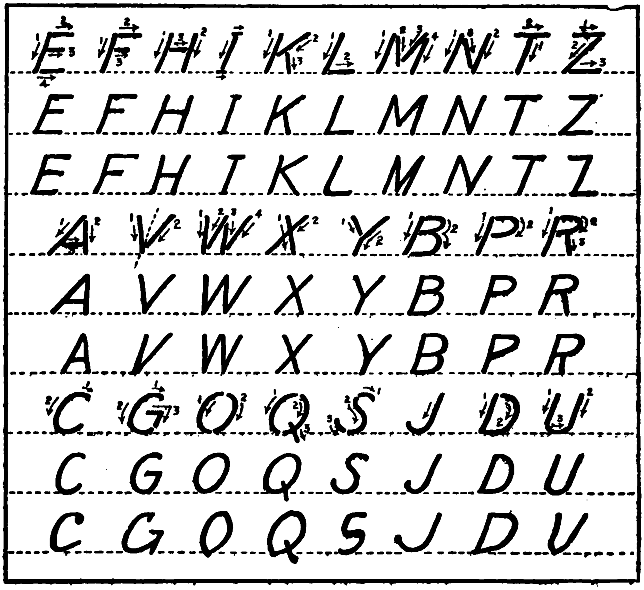

FIG. 38 (*d*).

(*d*) *Capital letters* are shown in Fig. 38 (*d*). Many of the directions already given for the lower-case letters apply to the capital letters also. Some additional points are as follows:

(1) The height of capital letters is not quite double that of lower-case letters. [See Art. 38 (*f*).]

(2) The width of most of the capital letters is about equal to the height of lower-case letters.

(3) The third or horizontal stroke in E, F, and H is slightly more than half-way up. This is true also of the middle horizontal line of B and the corresponding lines of P and of R.

(4) The second stroke in L and in T is comparatively short.

(5) In A, V, W, X, and Y the chief difficulty is in getting the *axis* of the letter at the standard slope. This is accomplished by making certain lines almost vertical, and opposite lines at a correspondingly greater slant, as shown in the figure. The horizontal stroke in *A* is quite near the bottom.

(6) The width of M and of W is greater than the width of other letters. The second and third strokes of the M meet in a point *above* the bottom line of the letter.

(7) The letters C, G, O, Q, and S are based on the ellipse. The tendency is to make these letters too wide.

(8) In practicing lettering observe carefully the order and direction of the strokes, which are for the most part *downward* and *from left to right*, and notice what errors to avoid as illustrated in the lines 3, 6, and 9.

(*e*) *Spacing the letters.* Crowd the letters close together and thus compress words into small space, otherwise one of the chief advantages of lettering will be lost. The tendency is to make letters too wide and too far apart. To make narrow compressed letters seem large and clear increase the height. Thus, for example, in Fig. 38 (*e*) the third line takes no more space lengthwise than the second, but the words are clearer because the height of the letters is greater. The first line illustrates how space may be wasted by not compressing the letters.

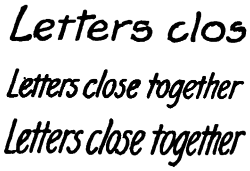

FIG. 38 (*e*).

(*f*) *Height of letters.* A good height for lower-case letters is $\frac{1}{16}''$, the height of numerals being slightly greater. This makes the height of capital letters a little less than $\frac{1}{8}''$. The effect when these heights are used may be judged by the field notes shown in Chapter XV.

39. Final Suggestions on Taking Notes. Remember that the extra time required in making field notes plain will probably be saved when the notes are plotted. Never let anything appear in the notes that can be misunderstood or misinterpreted, especially numerals. Usually there will be more to the notes for a given portion of the work than at first appears; the sketch will grow more complicated and there will be unexpected dimensions to be recorded; make a generous allowance for this in starting a page of notes so that they will not become crowded. In level notes and in most of the forms of transit notes it is better to omit every other line, thus leaving room for corrections. Be neat and systematic in keeping notes for field work, and the habits thus formed will be of great value in many other lines of work.

40. Special Directions for Class Work.

(1) A "party note-book" will be furnished for each party. Each student is expected to keep the notes of the party of which he is a member "copied up" in his own note-book, this book to be a *duplicate* of the party book. Copy *everything*, including mistakes and their corrections. Do not copy the notes of other parties.

(2) Pages should be numbered to correspond to those in the party note-book.

(3) In beginning the notes of a survey allow a few pages for a title and an index.

(4) In a closed survey the notes should be preceded by a sketch showing all transit lines with the letters or numbers of each station. (See p. 390.) *This sketch should be completed as fast as stations are established.*

(5) Print a descriptive title at the top of each page. This title may extend across the tops of two opposite pages.

(6) Each page in the party note-book should be dated and signed by the note-keeper as the work progresses.

(7) The notes in the party note-book should be inspected each day by the instructor in charge of the party. Students should not copy notes on any page which is not marked "Inspected" and signed by the instructor.

(8) Do not "scribble" in either the party note-book or your own note-book: carry a scribbling-pad in the pocket.

CHAPTER IV

CHAINING

In this chapter are given general directions for the use of the steel tape; many of them apply equally well to the use of the surveyor's chain. For a *description* of different chains and tapes, and for the methods of repairing and standardizing tapes, consult the chapter on "Chains and Tapes" in Part III.

41. Chaining. A term which originally meant measuring with a chain, but as now used it denotes measuring with either the chain or the tape.

42. Importance of Chaining. Linear measurement is the basis of all surveying. No matter how accurately angles may be measured the survey can be no more accurate than the chaining. Not only students but chainmen in actual work are apt to ook upon chaining as drudgery calling for no special ability. As a matter of fact wide-awake, careful chainmen are scarce and are valued accordingly. It is not easy to avoid mistakes, nor is it a simple thing to chain a line when great accuracy is required. To chain a line twice and get the same result is no ndication of great accuracy unless certain constant errors have been eliminated. (See Chapter V.) It is worth while, herefore, to study the subject of chaining carefully, especially anything that will help to avoid mistakes and eliminate errors.

43. Care of the Steel Tape. Steel tapes are easily broken. The chief danger is in pulling on the tape when there is a loop or kink in it; consequently guard against this. Do not jerk the tape needlessly, or step on it when it is on soft ground, or allow vehicles to run over it, or bend it into sharp corners. If the tape gets wet, wipe it dry before putting it away.

44. To Do Up a Steel Tape in a Figure 8. If a steel tape is gathered in in five-foot lengths *without being allowed to turn over,* it will fall of itself into concentric folds, and after the tape is all in, these folds may be crossed and tied at the center, forming a figure 8. This is a very convenient form, and in some respects it is better than winding the tape on a reel. Any quick method of bringing the five-foot marks together in one hand may be used. The following is recommended: Stretch the tape straight on the ground its entire length. Stand at one end squarely facing the tape, so that you look along its length. Take the end of the tape in the right hand, *palm of the hand up*, and swing the right hand behind you, *pulling the tape through the left hand*, held palm up. As each five-foot mark comes along, the left hand seizes it and lays it over the palm of the right hand *without permitting the tape to turn over.* The right hand closes on it and swings behind for another five-foot length, and thus the tape is gathered in in five-foot lengths. The swing behind is about as long as the average man can take readily. Once the knack is acquired it is hardly necessary to watch for the five-foot marks, and the whole thing is done very rapidly.

45. To Undo a Steel Tape (when it is in a figure 8). Hold in one hand and let out in five-foot lengths, *one at a time*, the reverse of doing it up. Attempting to let it out all at once will almost surely result in an annoying tangle.

46. To Do Up a Chain. Beginning at the *middle*, fold up the *doubled* chain, taking hold of two links at a time with one hand and laying each pair obliquely across the others so that the chain will have an hour-glass shape, easy to strap up and carry.

47. To Undo a Chain. Take the handles together in the left hand and the rest of the chain in the right hand, allowing a few links nearest the handle to drop off. Throw the chain in a direction opposite to that in which the chaining is to be done. The chain should straighten out doubled. As the head chainman, taking one end of the chain, proceeds along the line every link of the chain passes the rear chainman, who is thus able to detect and straighten all links that are bent.

(*a*) *Remark.* In doing up the chain some surveyors prefer to begin at the end of the chain instead of the middle, folding up two links at a time as before. In this case the chain may be undone by simply laying it down at the starting-point, the head chainman taking the handle which is *on top* and walking towards the further end of the line, while the rear chainman allows the chain to slip through his hands examining the links as before. This method saves the wear and tear on the chain that comes from throwing it out.

48. To Read a Tape. The easiest tape to read is one that *is graduated* continuously, the numbers starting from zero at one end and increasing in one direction only. If all tapes were thus numbered and if each foot of the tape were subdivided, many mistakes would be avoided and the somewhat elaborate precautions outlined in the succeeding articles would be unnecessary. Many tapes, however, are numbered from each end towards the middle to correspond to the numbering on chains. This gives rise to the common mistake of reading from the wrong end, as, for example, reading 40 ft. instead of 60 ft. When every fifth foot of the tape is numbered, even though the numbers run in one direction only, the mistake of reading on the wrong side of a number is often made, as, for example, 41 ft. instead of 39 ft. Unless every foot is numbered, therefore, make this an inviolable rule: *Read the number on each side of the required reading.* For example, in the mistake just mentioned the chainman noticed that the reading was 1 ft. from the mark numbered 40, and jumped to the conclusion that the reading was 41; if he had read the number on the other side (i.e., 35) he would have seen that the reading was between 35 and 40 and thus have corrected his mistake.

The use of tapes in which only the end foot is subdivided gives rise to other mistakes which are avoided only by taking precautions similar to those outlined in Art. 50 (*a*).

49. To Read a Chain. If the chain is a 66-ft. chain (Gunter's chain) measurements are made in chains and links, but as each link is $\frac{1}{100}$ of a chain the links are recorded as decimal parts of a chain. Thus, 8 chains and 39 links is 8.39 chains, and 8 chains and 8 links is 8.08 chains, *not* 8.8 chains.

When 100-ft. chains are used measurements are kept in feet as usual. Mistakes of reading in the wrong direction should be avoided by reading the number each side of the required reading.

(*a*) *Remark.* Chains are heavy and clumsy, difficult to stretch tight and straight, change their length rapidly from wear, and are at the best only good for comparatively rough measurements. Tapes are now made of such strength and durability that even in rough country they will hold their own with chains, and it is only a question of time when they will probably replace them altogether.

50. General Method of Chaining. The two chainmen are called *head chainman* and *rear chainman.* In ordinary work, however, whichever chainman happens to be nearer the point towards which the chaining is being done acts as head chainman. The method of chaining depends upon whether the distance to be measured is less or greater than the length of the tape.

(*a*) *Measurements less than the length of the tape.* If the tape is graduated continuously from zero, every foot being subdivided into tenths, no special directions are required. Whichever chainman has the zero end of the tape holds it at one point and the other chainman reads the tape at the other point. In many tapes, however, although the foot at each end of the tape is subdivided, there are no subdivisions in the intermediate feet. Suppose it is desired to measure a distance from *A* to *B* which is less than the length of such a tape. One chainman holds the zero end at *A*, the other chainman notes which even foot-mark is just beyond *B*, and holds that mark at *B*, calling out what it is. The tape is tightened and the zero is no longer at *A*. The first chainman *mentally subtracts a foot* and adds the tenths, reading the tenths *not from the end of the tape* but from the *first* foot-mark. The important thing to notice is that the final reading is made by the chainman who is at the *end* of the tape. As he calls out the final reading, the other chainman must listen to make sure that a foot has been subtracted from the reading which he first gave, and if it has been, he calls out "All right."

(*b*) *Illustration.* The distance from *A* to *B* is 60.8 feet. One chainman holds the zero at *A*. The other chainman finding that the 61 foot-mark falls just beyond *B*, holds that mark at *B* and calls out "61." The first chainman pulls back the tape until it is tight, finds that *A* is eight tenths from the first foot-mark (not from the end of tape or zero), mentally subtracts a foot from 61 and calls out "60.8." The other chainman, noticing that a foot has been subtracted from his own reading of 61, calls out "All right."

(*c*) *Note.* Students are urged to follow out *precisely* the directions just given. There are other methods, of course, but unless some one method is adopted and always used, there is sure to be trouble. If the chainman at the end of the tape always gives the final reading, no question arises as to whether the tenths are to be added or subtracted. Suppose, for example, in the preceding illustration the chainman at the end simply calls out "Eight tenths"; if the other chainman has to make the final reading, he may think that it is eight tenths from the *end*, or eight tenths "off," and will then read 60.2 instead of 60.8. Remember, then, that it is *the chainman at the end of the tape* who makes the final reading, and that it is understood that the other chainman *never subtracts a foot* before calling out the even foot-reading.

(*d*) *Remark.* It will be noticed that nearly every precaution in reading the tape thus far mentioned would be unnecessary if every foot on the tape were numbered, and if each foot were subdivided. The first cost of such a tape is greater, but in the end this is more than made up by the time saved and the mistakes avoided.

(*e*) *Measurements greater than the length of the tape.* In chaining between two points when the distance is greater than the length of tape, three things must be kept in mind: (1) The chaining must be done in as direct a line as possible: (2) The point where the end of the tape comes each time must be carefully marked; (3) The tape must be stretched straight and tight each time. Any method may be used that accomplishes these things without loss of time. It is customary for the rear chainman to line the head chainman in every time he moves ahead, although in very accurate work this is done from the transit. Chaining-pins are ordinarily used to mark the points at the end of the tape; for accurate work stakes may be set and a tack or a knife-mark on the stake used to indicate the exact point. The chainmen should agree upon some set of signals similar to those used in the following illustration.

(*f*) *Illustration.* Required to chain from *A* to *B*, distance 634.3 feet with a 100-foot tape. Rear chainman (R.C.) holds the zero end of the tape at *A* and motions the head chainman (H.C.) into line with a pole held or set at *B*. R.C. sees that the tape is straight and tight, and calls out "Stick," or "All right," and H.C. "sticks" the pin at the end of the tape and calls out "Stuck." R.C. *drops* his end of the tape and H.C. moves on, dragging the tape after him and keeping himself approximately in line by looking back at *A* over the pin already set. When the zero end of the tape reaches the pin, R.C., who is following, calls out "Chain," a signal for H.C. to stop. R.C. then holds the zero at the pin and the process is repeated. The short distance from the last pin to the station (34.3 feet) is measured according to the method of paragraph (*a*). Counting the last pin that was set, the rear chainman, if he gathered up the pins as he went along, should have six pins, which tells him that up to that point the tape was stretched six times, or it is 600 feet.

51. End Graduation. It is sometimes uncertain just what points of a tape to take for its ends. For example, the foot at each end may or may not include the handle. To find out, compare with some intermediate foot of the tape.

52. Setting the Chaining-pins. Stick the pin in the ground slanting, at right angles to the line, so that it slides under the tape, with its *center* opposite the graduation-point on the tape. On the whole this is better than sticking a pin with *its edge* against the end of the tape or opposite a graduation.

53. Chaining on a Slope. In measuring a slope there are two ways of getting the *horizontal* distance, which is the distance usually required in surveying: (1) To measure along the slope and correct this measurement by calculation; (2) To take such precautions that the tape, instead of resting on the ground, will be *horizontal* every time it is stretched for a measurement.

(*a*) *First method. The calculated correction for slope.* If *c* is the difference between the length on a slope and the horizontal projection, *d* the difference in elevation of the two ends of this test will show that the pin has not been set in exactly the right place.

13. When calling out a measurement to a note-keeper make sure that he gets it by having him repeat it after you.

14. In extremely accurate work use the spring-balance and thermometer, and eliminate sag by supporting the tape. In such work it is more necessary than ever to compare the tape with some standard length.

15. Be constantly on the alert to preserve the tape from injury. When not in use, stretch it beside a fence or in some out-of-the-way place where it will not be stepped on. Keep in touch with the work so as to notice any measurements inadvertently omitted, and to anticipate directions from the head of the party

(b) *Some things a chainman should not do.*

1. Don't jerk the tape, or pull on it when it is kinked, or let vehicles run over it, or bend it sharply into corners, or step on it. Don't lose the handles: tie them on.

2. Don't split hairs lining in.

3. Don't forget to subtract a foot from the reading if it ought to be subtracted. Don't read from the wrong end of the tape.

4. Don't disturb the chaining-pin, or let it be pulled over.

5. Don't let go of the tape until the other chainman signals.

6. Don't stick the pin until the other chainman signals.

7. Don't pull up the pin until sure that it will be no longer needed.

8. Don't hit the leg of the transit when measuring near it.

9. The rear chainman should not get in the line of sight when the transitman is lining in the head chainman.

10. If the tape is in a leather or metallic box do not keep pulling the tape out and winding it up; if much work is to be done, it may be better to detach the box.

or else the sag correction is determined; some device, as a fine scratch on top of a stake, marks the chain-lengths in place of the chain-pins. The chainmen are lined in from the transit, or else stakes are set in line for the use of the chainmen; measurements are made horizontal by stakes set on a level, or if on a grade, the correction for the slope is determined. For work between ordinary work and extremely accurate work precautions must be adopted to correspond. (See the next chapter.)

55. Errors. Some of the things which chainmen should know concerning errors in chaining are:

1. Sources and relative importance of errors.
2. Methods for eliminating or correcting errors.
3. Customary limits of error for different kinds of work.
4. Field-work requirements corresponding to different limits of error.

These subjects are more fully discussed in the next chapter.

56. Summary. (From preceding pages.)

(*a*) *Some things a chainman should do.*

1. Find the exact points which mark the ends of a tape.
2. Find by what method the tape is graduated, and note how it must be read.
3. Agree on a set of signals with the other members of the party.
4. Find by trial what an 8- or 12-pound pull feels like.
5. See that the tape is straight and exert a steady standard pull while measuring.
6. Find out the limit of error and work accordingly.
7. Keep the tape horizontal and use short lengths on steep slopes.
8. Line in and stick the chain-pins correctly.
9. Keep the right count of tape-lengths.
10. Unless every foot on the tape is numbered make sure of a reading by looking at the number on each side of it.
11. When only the end foot is subdivided the chainman at the *end* of the tape should invariably make the final reading.
12. The head chainman should keep himself approximately "in line" by looking backward over the line. He should lift his end of the tape to straighten it, and then let it down slowly on the line to be sure that it remains straight. In accurate work, after the pin is stuck, he should lift the chain as before and let it down *again to test* the position of the pin; frequently

this test will show that the pin has not been set in exactly the right place.

13. When calling out a measurement to a note-keeper make sure that he gets it by having him repeat it after you.

14. In extremely accurate work use the spring-balance and thermometer, and eliminate sag by supporting the tape. In such work it is more necessary than ever to compare the tape with some standard length.

15. Be constantly on the alert to preserve the tape from injury. When not in use, stretch it beside a fence or in some out-of-the-way place where it will not be stepped on. Keep in touch with the work so as to notice any measurements inadvertently omitted, and to anticipate directions from the head of the party

(*b*) *Some things a chainman should not do.*

1. Don't jerk the tape, or pull on it when it is kinked, or let vehicles run over it, or bend it sharply into corners, or step on it. Don't lose the handles: tie them on.

2. Don't split hairs lining in.

3. Don't forget to subtract a foot from the reading if it ought to be subtracted. Don't read from the wrong end of the tape.

4. Don't disturb the chaining-pin, or let it be pulled over.

5. Don't let go of the tape until the other chainman signals.

6. Don't stick the pin until the other chainman signals.

7. Don't pull up the pin until sure that it will be no longer needed.

8. Don't hit the leg of the transit when measuring near it.

9. The rear chainman should not get in the line of sight when the transitman is lining in the head chainman.

10. If the tape is in a leather or metallic box do not keep pulling the tape out and winding it up; if much work is to be done, it may be better to detach the box.

CHAPTER V

ERRORS IN LINEAR MEASUREMENTS

is chapter sources of error in chaining are pointed out, the relative
nce of errors from different sources is discussed, and methods of
on or elimination are given. Limits of precision are suggested
erent kinds of work, and field-work requirements are indicated
erent limits of precision. A general classification of errors is given
, and it is necessary in studying this chapter to keep clearly in
he difference between *accidental* and *constant* errors, and between
ive and *compensating* errors. The distinction between *discrepancy*
or is also an important one, since the discrepancy between dupli-
asurements may or may not indicate the precision of the work
t. 20, p. 11).

Sources of Error in Chaining.

Error in the length and in the graduations of the tape.*

Errors due to temperature, and to other natural sources.

Errors in manipulation, — tape not horizontal, not
ed tight, imperfect alignment, sag, pull, and marking
ngths.

Personal errors. Mistakes in reading the tape. Blunders,
, for example, as occur in counting tape-lengths.

Error Expressed by a Ratio. $\frac{1}{500}$, $\frac{1}{1000}$, $\frac{1}{12000}$, etc.,
an error of 1 part in 500, or 1 part in 1000, or 1 part in
, and so on.

tration. An error of 0.05 feet in a measurement of 714.85
: $0.05 \div 714.85 = \frac{1}{14297}$, or about $\frac{1}{14300}$.

Error in the Length of the Tape. *Cumulative* and
ant. *Plus* or *minus* according to whether the tape is too
r too long. If a tape is *too short*, the measured distance
n two fixed points will be *longer* than the true distance
plus); and contrariwise if the tape is *too long*, the meas-
stance will be *shorter* than the true distance (error minus).

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error in the length of a steel tape is relatively small and remains
in a chain it often becomes large from connecting rings being
d, links being bent, or joints becoming worn.

(*a*) *Illustration.* The *true* distance between two points is 400 feet. If, however, this distance is measured with a 100-ft. tape which is 0.02 ft. too short (i.e., length = 99.98 ft.), the result will be 400 ÷ 0.9998 = 400.08 ft. If, on the other hand, the tape is 0.02 ft. too long (i.e., length = 100.02 ft.), the result will be 400 ÷ 1.0002 = 399.92 ft.

(*b*) *To apply the tape correction.* The tested length of a 100-ft. tape multiplied by 0.01 gives the length of the tape in terms of the standard (i.e., in terms of 100 ft.). Thus a tape 0.1 ft. too long is 100.1 ft. long, or 1.001 times what it should be. Call this constant for any tape *C*, then use the

Rule. Multiply all measurements by C to reduce to true measurements.

(*c*) *Illustration.* In the preceding illustration the constant for the tape which is 0.02 ft. too short is 0.9998, and for the tape which is 0.02 ft. too long it is 1.0002; hence

Measured Distance × Constant = True Distance.
400.08 × 0.9998 = 400 ft.
399.92 × 1.0002 = 400 ft.

In establishing one point at a required distance from another point the rule is reversed. *Rule. Divide the required distance by C: the result is the actual (false) distance to measure off.*

(*d*) *Illustration.* It is required to establish one point 400 ft. from another point with a tape 0.02 ft. too short (i.e., *C* = 0.9998); then the *false* distance which must be measured off is 400 ÷ 0.9998 = 400.08 ft.

60. Error due to the Tape not being Horizontal. Error is *cumulative, plus,* and important. Eliminated by the method of Art. 53.

61. Error when the Tape is not Stretched Tight and Straight. (Ends in line, tape lying on surface of ground, but not stretched tight.) *Cumulative, plus,* and important.

62. Error due to Temperature. Error is *cumulative,—plus* when the temperature is below the standard temperature for the tape, *minus* when it is above. The length of a 100-ft. steel tape may be changed more than $\frac{1}{2}$ inch by an extreme change in temperature from 20° to 90° Fah. In accurate work this source of error must, as far as possible, be eliminated by noting the temperature and applying the correction. In ordinary work temperature may be neglected. Base-lines are usually measured on a cloudy day (sometimes at night), so that the tape may be nearer the temperature of the atmosphere. The temperature of a tape lying in the sun is difficult to obtain.

(*a*) *Note.* If the coefficient of expansion of a steel tape is not known, use 0.0000065 per 1° Fah. or 100 × 0.0000065 = 0.00065 ft. change per 1° Fah. for a tape 100 ft. long. Thus 70 × 0.00065 = 0.0455 ft. for extremes of 70° change for a 100-foot tape. The following approximate rate of change is, perhaps, the easiest to remember. *The length of a 100-ft. steel tape changes $\frac{1}{100}$ of a foot for every 15° (Fah.) change of temperature.*

(*b*) *Remarks.* The error due to temperature may be quite large, and in certain lines of work it is too often neglected by surveyors. A city block, for example, 400 ft. to 500 ft. long, measured with the same tape may be found apparently 2″ or 3″ shorter in summer than in winter, if it is in a climate where the thermometer ranges from 0° to 90° (Fah.).

(*c*) *An experiment.* In order that the effect of even a small change in temperature may be perfectly evident, and incidentally to show the effect also of the sun's rays, the students in the author's classes are required to make the following experiment: About noon on a clear day a 100-ft. steel tape is stretched across supporting stakes, set on line 20 ft. apart, with their tops on a level. A 12-pound pull is kept by means of a spring-balance, and a fine scratch is made on the top of the stake at each end of the tape. At about 5 P.M. of the same day the tape is again stretched under the same conditions. The scratches made at noon are often found to be ⅛″ or more farther apart *apparently*, than when they were made. This shrinkage of ⅛″ in the tape corresponds to a fall of 15° in temperature, but the change in the atmosphere may have been much less than this. A large part is due to the sun, which at noon shone on the tape with much greater intensity than at five o'clock. Still more striking results may be obtained by repeating the experiment with the tape stretched in contact with the warm ground or a hot pavement.

63. Error in Alignment. Error is *cumulative* and *plus*,—relatively unimportant. Much time is often wasted in splitting hairs when "lining in" with the transit. Setting pins as much as six inches, first one side and then the other of the line, affects measurements but little. In ordinary work the chainmen line themselves in. The rear chainman moves his hand right or left to line the head chainman in: a vigorous motion, move quite a distance; a slight motion, a small distance. Much time can be saved if the head chainman will line himself in, approximately, by looking backward over the head of the rear chainman to the point or station from which the measurement is being made. In accurate work the transitman "lines in" the head chainman, in which case the rear chainman must keep out of the line of sight. Range-poles are sometimes used in lining in.

64. Error due to Sag. Error is *cumulative* and *plus*. There are three ways of eliminating error due to sag. (1) Put an extra pull on the tape which will stretch it enough to offset the sag—quite difficult to do. (2) Calculate the correction from the equation of the curve and apply the correction.* If, how-

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* The following formulas for sag and pull are derived in Johnson's Surveying, p. 505:

c = excess (in inches) in length of curve over the linear distance between supports; d = distance between supports in inches; w = weight of one inch of tape in pounds; P = pull in pounds

$$c=\frac{d}{24}\left(\frac{wd}{P}\right)^2.$$

C_p = correction for pull in inches; l = length of tape in inches;
S = cross-sectional area of tape in square inches;
E = modulus of elasticity. (If not known for the tape it may be taken at 28,000,000)

$$C_p=\frac{Pl}{SE}.$$

The pull required to balance sag is

$$P_n=\sqrt[3]{\frac{w^2d^2SE}{24}}$$ (This pull is called *normal tension*.)

ever, work is important enough for sag to be taken into account it will usually warrant the expense of (3) providing supports near enough together to practically eliminate sag.

65. Errors due to Uneven Pull. If the pull is always too large or always too small the error becomes cumulative otherwise it may be compensating. Pull is unimportant except in very accurate work; ordinarily guessed at; it should be strong but steady, from 8 to 12 lbs. One can guess nearer if he actually experiments with a spring-balance a few times. An ordinary 100-ft. steel tape stretches less than $\frac{1}{100}$ of an inch per pound of pull.

66. Errors in Marking Tape-lengths. *Compensating,* except for very short lines; important. When chain-pins are used, observe the directions on p. 35 for setting pins. In accurate work the error is greatly reduced by making fine scratches to mark the tape-lengths. Disturbing pins after they are set must be classed as a blunder. One of the greatest sources of error in marking tape-lengths is in plumbing down from an end of the tape held off the ground.

67. Errors in Reading the Tape. *Compensating.* Errors in reading the tape are not likely to be important unless large enough to be classed as actual mistakes or blunders. In very accurate work, however, such as the measurements of base-lines, they become important, and some device provided with a microscope or magnifying-glass is often used for observing graduation-marks on the tape. If the tape is graduated continuously throughout its length, important sources of mistakes are avoided. Otherwise chainmen forget to subtract the one foot from the first reading (see Art. 50, p. 34), or they read from the wrong end of the tape, especially if the distance is only a little greater or less than half the length of the tape. Thus, 39 ft. instead of 61 ft., or 55 ft. instead of 45 ft. (see p. 33).

Another common mistake is to read on the wrong side of a number, as, for example, 41 instead of 39 (see p. 33). This mistake is most likely to occur when the numerals on the tape are placed at the five-foot points only, but even when using a tape that has every foot numbered it is best to follow the rule on page 33 and read the number on each side of the given point.

Blunders in keeping count of tape-lengths are very common. When pins are used such blunders may be avoided by keeping *tally* with the pins (p. 35).

68. Sources of Errors in Chaining.—Summary.

1.	Incorrect length of tape	Cumulative	+ or −
2	Tape not stretched *horizontally*	Cumulative	+
3.	Tape not stretched tight and straight, but both ends in line	Cumulative	+
4	Error due to temperature	Cumulative	+ or −
5.	Error in alignment	Cumulative	+
6.	Error due to sag	Cumulative	+
7.	Variation in pull	Compensating	±
8.	Error in setting chain-pins	Compensating	±
9.	Disturbing pins after they are set	Blunder	
10.	Errors in reading the tape	Mistake	
11	Incorrect count of tape-lengths	Blunder	

69. Relative Importance of Sources of Error. As an aid to the discussion of this subject a table has been prepared showing for each source of error the conditions which will cause an error of 0.01 ft. (or about ⅛ in.) in a distance of 100 ft. Some of the values given will differ for different tapes, but they are approximately correct for the average 100 ft. steel tape.

Conditions.	Error.
1. *Length of tape.* A difference of ⅛ in. from standard length	0.01 ft.
2. *Tape not horizontal.* One end 1.4 ft. higher than the other end	0.01 "
3. *Tape not stretched tight.* Center of tape 0.7 ft. or 8⅜ in. out of line	0.01 "
4. *Temperature.* For every fifteen degrees change	0.01 "
5. *Alignment.* One end of tape in line, the other 1.4 ft. out of line	0.01 "
6. *Sag.* The middle of the tape 0.61 ft. or 7⅜ in. below the ends	0.01 "
7. *Pull.* For every 15 pounds pull	0.01 "
8. *Marking tape-lengths.* Error of ⅛ in. in marking or plumbing	0.01 "
9. *Reading tape.* Error of ⅛ in. in reading	0.01 "

(*a*) From inspection of this table it is evident that an error of 0.01 ft. in 100 ft. is much more likely to occur from some sources than from others. It is quite likely that the temperature will vary 15°, but not at all likely that the pull will vary 15 pounds. Chainmen are more likely to chain along a slope without realizing that one end of the tape is 1.4 ft. lower than the other than they are to allow one end of the tape to get 1.4 ft. out of line when chaining between two points.

A steel tape, unknown to the surveyor, may be ⅛″ too long or too short, and though it may not occur to him to test the length of the tape, yet he is very careful not to make an error of ⅛ in. in marking tape-lengths (an error less important because compensating).

In ordinary work certain errors like that due to temperature are unimportant, because it is not necessary to take them into account in order to gain the required precision, and for that class of work they are said to be inappreciable (see Art. 23); but for city work and other accurate work these same errors become appreciable and important.

(*b*) In judging of the relative importance of errors the following additional points are to be kept in mind:

1. Cumulative errors are more important than compensating errors, but, as shown above, not all cumulative errors are equally important.

2. In a short line a compensating error may occur only once or twice and thus fail to be compensating. For example, if the length of a line is a little less than two tape-lengths, any error in marking the end of the first tape-length is not compensating. The more tape-lengths there are in a line the more likely are such errors to be truly compensating, and the more times a line is measured the more likely are accidental errors to disappear from the mean. (See p. 13.)

3. One cumulative error sometimes balances another cumulative error. For example, a strong pull may offset sag, or high temperature may offset a slight shortage in the length of a tape.

4. Other things being equal, it is most important to guard against those errors which are most likely to occur.

70. Limits of Error. The allowable error in chaining is often determined by the time and money spent on a survey and not by the importance of obtaining accurate results. Assuming, however, that the surveyor can proceed regardless of time or expense, he should for any particular piece of work determine the limit of error within which the chainmen must come. The purpose of a survey determines this, but different parts of the same survey may require different degrees of accuracy. For example, a survey is made of a city lot with buildings on it, to be plotted to a scale of $1'' = 20$ ft. Unless the dimensions of the buildings are to be put on the map or kept for record, no great care is necessary in measuring them, for $\frac{1}{20}$ of an inch on the map equals a foot, and an error of less than $\frac{1}{2}$ ft. will hardly show. On the other hand, the lengths of boundary-lines should be determined as accurately as possible, because these lengths should be written on the map (by numerals and dimension lines) regardless of scale, and if incorrect they may give rise to boundary disputes. In general, then, *the greatest pains should be taken in measuring distances to be preserved in records or on maps in actual figures, while distances that will be scaled from a map, or distances needed simply to plot a map, may be measured less carefully.* It is one thing to know the precision required, it is another thing to obtain it. Some conditions affecting accuracy of the work are: (1) Correctness and fineness of the graduations on the tape; (2) Nature of the ground chained, hilly or level, open or covered with trees and underbrush; (3) Speed, i.e., time spent as determined by the importance of the work or the allowable cost; (4) Weather—clear or cloudy, very hot or very cold, calm or windy; (5) The effectiveness of devices for stretching and supporting the tape, and for measuring temperature; (6) The ability of the chainmen, and their willingness to take pains.

71. Probable Error of a Line N Tape-lengths Long. (*a*) A line N tape-lengths long may be regarded as the *sum* of N measurements. If the probable error of each measurement (a tape-length long) is the same, and this probable error is represented by r, then from formula (4), p. 18, $R_s = \sqrt{Nr^2}$ or $R_s = r\sqrt{N}$. Thus it is seen that the probable error of the total observed length of a line may be found by multiplying the probable error of one tape-length by the square root of the number of tape-lengths (i.e., length of the line in tape-lengths). The more completely the constant errors are eliminated, and the more completely the other assumptions of "least squares" are fulfilled, the nearer this formula is to the truth. Its use, therefore, is chiefly confined to work of great precision.

(*b*) In ordinary chaining the accuracy of the work is judged in most cases by the discrepancy between two measurements of the line made with the same care. In such a case constant errors do not affect the discrepancy. (Why?) And since this discrepancy is largely due to accidental errors, it will *not* vary in proportion to the length of the line. On the other hand, the number of tape-lengths is usually too small to warrant the application of the theory of least squares without reservation. All that can be said is that if the discrepancy between two measurements for a hundred feet (or tape-length) is a certain amount d, it is likely that the discrepancy for any other length will be $D=d\sqrt{N}$, where N is the number of tape-lengths. This is considerably nearer the truth than to say $D=dN$.

(*c*) *Remark.* In rough chaining constant errors are likely to predominate, but in work of great precision, where pains have been taken to eliminate constant errors, accidental errors are likely to predominate. Hence in rough work the *true* or unknowable error is likely to vary more nearly as the *length* of the line, but as the precision becomes greater and greater the *true* error will vary more and more nearly as the square root of the number of tape-lengths. Notice that this applies to the *true* or unknowable errors and not to discrepancies.

72. To Determine Coefficients of Precision. (*a*) When the chaining is done under such conditions as to warrant the use of the method of least squares, the value of r may be determined by measuring a line of average length a number of times under the conditions which will prevail in the measurement of other lines; then from the formulas on p. 17 determine the error of a single observation. Substitute this value for R_s in the formula $R_s=r\sqrt{N}$, substitute for N its value, and solve for r. (See p. 59 for a complete illustration.)

Another method is to make duplicate measurements of several lines of different lengths, and find r from the formula $r=0.4769\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma pd^2}{n}}$, where d = difference between two measurements of same line, Σ = sum of, n = number of lines, and p is the weight for any one line, which varies inversely as its length, or $p=\frac{1}{l}$. (See Merriman's *Method of Least Squares*, p. 103.)

(*b*) For ordinary chaining where the use of the method of least squares is hardly justified, the value of d in $D=d\sqrt{N}$ may be obtained by measuring a line of average length a number of times under the prevailing conditions of field work, and substituting for D the mean of the discrepancies, solve for d.

(*c*) *Illustration.* The average length of lines in a survey will be, say, about 400 ft. The chaining is to be done under favorable conditions. Four measurements of a line, made as nearly as possible with the same speed and under the same conditions that will prevail in the survey, give 400.1, 399.95, 400.05, 400.15. Comparing the first measurement with each of the other three, the second with the succeeding two, the third with the fourth, six discrepancies are obtained and the mean is

$$(0.15+0.05+0.05+0.1+0.2+0.1)\div 6=0.1083.$$

Then $0.1083=d\sqrt{4}$, or $d=0.0542$. For any other line the discrepancy may be expected to be about $0.0542\sqrt{N}$, or for a line say 900 ft. long $0.0542\sqrt{9}=0.1626$ ft.

73. Customary Limits of Error. (*a*) The method suggested in the preceding illustration for comparing measurements of different lines is for guidance only, and in determining the coefficient *d* it is absurd to carry results to several decimal places as was done in that illustration. When it is not worth while to determine *d* in the field it may be assumed as 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, or some other quantity which accords with experience. In order to give some definite idea of what constitutes good chaining under favorable conditions, coefficients are suggested in Table I, on the next page, for different classes of work. For hilly, rough country they must be modified, especially if underbrush, bad weather, and other unfavorable conditions prevail. Under such conditions coefficients called fairly good in the table may become good or even excellent, and the same is true, also, when the purpose of the survey does not require very accurate results.

The impossibility of fixing any standard for chaining owing to varying conditions is of course apparent, and the coefficients given are for guidance only; they should be modified, when necessary, to accord with the dictates of common sense and experience. It is assumed that the duplicate measurements, from which the discrepancy in any given case is determined, are made under approximately the same conditions —same chainmen, same tape, same temperature, and same speed.

The upper part of the table suggests coefficients, and the lower part gives the allowable discrepancies for lines of different lengths and for different coefficients.

ation. A line is chained twice under favorable conditions
and bob are used, the tape being kept horizontal
ments are 828.91 and 828.88. The discrepancy
arest value for 800 ft. is 0.028, which
l. From the upper part of the table
r the conditions under which the
and spring-balance had been used
ud, it is seen from the table

essed by a

0.012

0.018

line may be considered to indicate closely the variation to be expected *in comparatively short lines,* but as the lines become longer the discrepancy will vary more nearly as the *square root* of the length. Table II has been made out on the assumption that the conditions for chaining are favorable; for unfavorable conditions the values must be modified. The warning against the injudicious use of Table I holds good for this table also. For lines less than 1000 ft. long the values in the two tables correspond closely (see Table III), and hence it makes little difference which is used, although Table II is in the more convenient form. For lines over 1000 ft. use Table I.

TABLE I

COEFFICIENTS OF PRECISION FOR CHAINING

Conditions: Fairly open, level ground. Measurements made with	Coefficients for different results		
	Excellent	Good	Fairly Good
Chain, plumb-bob, chain-pins, average speed.	0.03 to 0.04	0.05 to 0.08	0.09 to 0.1
Steel tape, plumb-bob, chain-pins, average speed.	0.01 to 0.02	0.02 to 0.04	0.04 to 0.05
Steel tape, spring-balance, thermom., sag eliminated	0.002 to 0.005	0.005 to 0.01	0.01 to 0.02

ALLOWABLE DISCREPANCIES IN CHAINING

Length	Discrepancies for different values of coefficient "*d*"									
100	**0.01**	**0.02**	**0.03**	**0.04**	**0.05**	**0.06**	**0.07**	**0.08**	**0.09**	**0.10**
300	0.017	0.035	0.052	0.07	0.09	0.10	0.12	0.14	0.16	0.17
400	0.020	0.040	0.060	0.08	0.10	0.12	0.14	0.16	0.18	0.20
600	0.024	0.049	0.073	0.10	0.12	0.15	0.17	0.20	0.22	0.24
800	0.028	0.057	0.085	0.11	0.14	0.17	0.20	0.23	0.25	0.28
1000	0.032	0.063	0.095	0.13	0.16	0.19	0.22	0.25	0.28	0.32
1200	0.035	0.069	0.104	0.14	0.17	0.21	0.24	0.28	0.31	0.35
1400	0.037	0.075	0.112	0.15	0.19	0.22	0.26	0.30	0.34	0.37
1600	0.040	0.080	0.120	0.16	0.20	0.24	0.28	0.32	0.36	0.40
1800	0.042	0.085	0.127	0.17	0.21	0.26	0.30	0.34	0.38	0.42
2000	0.045	0.089	0.134	0.18	0.22	0.27	0.31	0.36	0.40	0.45
3000	0.055	0.110	0.163	0.22	0.27	0.33	0.38	0.44	0.49	0.55
4000	0.063	0.126	0.190	0.25	0.32	0.38	0.44	0.51	0.57	0.63
5000	0.071	0.141	0.212	0.28	0.35	0.42	0.49	0.57	0.64	0.71
6000	0.077	0.155	0.232	0.31	0.39	0.46	0.54	0.62	0.70	0.77
7000	0.084	0.167	0.251	0.33	0.42	0.50	0.59	0.67	0.75	0.84
8000	0.089	0.179	0.268	0.36	0.45	0.54	0.63	0.71	0.80	0.89
9000	0.095	0.190	0.285	0.38	0.47	0.57	0.66	0.76	0.85	0.95

Determine from the upper part of the table the coefficient to be used. Enter the column in the lower part of the table headed by that coefficient. Run the eye down the column until opposite the length of the line chained. The result is the discrepancy in feet which may be reasonably expected. For 0.002, 0.005, etc., use columns 0.02, 0.05, etc., adding *one decimal place.*

ALLOWABLE DISCREPANCIES IN CHAINING

Discrepancy of two measurements of the same line, given for different lengths 300	400	600	800	1000	Ratio of the discrepancy to length of measured line	Ratio of the probable error of either measurement*	Ratio of the probable error of arithmetical mean*	Results
Measurements made with *chain*, plumb-bob, chain-pins, and average speed								
0.06	0.08	0.12 ft.	0.16	0.2	$\frac{1}{5000}$	$\frac{1}{10000}$	$\frac{1}{15000}$	Excellent
0.12	0.16	0.24 "	0.32	0.4	$\frac{1}{2500}$	$\frac{1}{5000}$	$\frac{1}{7500}$	Good
Measurements made with *steel tape*, plumb-bob, chain-pins, and average speed								
0.012	0.016	0.024 ft.	0.032	0.04	$\frac{1}{25000}$	$\frac{1}{50000}$	$\frac{1}{75000}$	Excellent
0.024	0.032	0.048 "	0.064	0.08	$\frac{1}{12500}$	$\frac{1}{25000}$	$\frac{1}{37500}$	Good
0.06	0.08	0.12 "	0.16	0.20	$\frac{1}{5000}$	$\frac{1}{10000}$	$\frac{1}{15000}$	Fair
Measurements made with steel tape, spring-balance, thermometer, sag eliminated, accurate alignment								
0.003	0.004	0.006 ft.	0.008	0.01	$\frac{1}{100000}$	$\frac{1}{200000}$	$\frac{1}{300000}$	Excellent
0.006	0.008	0.012 "	0.016	0.02	$\frac{1}{50000}$	$\frac{1}{100000}$	$\frac{1}{150000}$	Good
0.012	0.016	0.024 "	0.032	0.04	$\frac{1}{25000}$	$\frac{1}{50000}$	$\frac{1}{75000}$	Fairly good
0.018	0.024	0.036 "	0.048	0.06	$\frac{1}{16000}$	$\frac{1}{32000}$	$\frac{1}{48000}$	Passable

* Too much importance must not be attached to probable errors of only two observations.

(*b*) *Illustrations.* Two measurements made with a steel tape under ordinary conditions are 651.2 and 651.15. The discrepancy is 0.05. Nearest value in Table II for 600 ft. for given conditions is 0.048, or ratio is $\frac{1}{12500}$, which is considered *good*. In very accurate work this would not be considered as even passable.

TABLE III

COMPARISON OF RESULTS FROM TABLE I WITH THOSE FROM TABLE II

Length	300		600	
Tables	I	II	I	II
	Chain, plumb-bob, cha		in-pins, average speed	
Excellent	0.05 -0.07	0.06	0.07 -0.10	0.12
Good	0.09 -0.14	0.12	0.12 -0.20	0.24
	Steel tape, plumb-bob,		chain-pins, aver. speed	
Excellent	0.017-0.035	0.012	0.024-0.049	0.024
Good	0.035-0.07	0.024	0.049-0.10	0.048
Fair	0.07 -0.09	0.06	0.10 -0.12	0.12
	Steel tape, spring-balan corresponding		ce, thermometer, and precautions	
Excellent	0.003-0.009	0.003	0.005-0.012	0.006
Good	0.009-0.017	0.006	0.012-0.024	0.012
Fair	0.017-0.035	0.012	0.024-0.049	0.024

Length	1000		5000	
Tables	I	II	I	II
	Chain, plumb-bob, cha		in-pins, average speed	
Excellent	0.09 -0.13	0.20	0.21-0.28	1.0
Good	0.16 -0.25	0.40	0.35-0.57	2.0
	Steel tape, plumb-bob,		chain-pins, aver. speed	
Excellent	0.032-0.063	0.04	0.07-0.14	0.2
Good	0.063-0.13	0.08	0.14-0.28	0.4
Fair	0.13 -0.16	0.20	0.28-0.35	1.0
	Steel tape, spring-balan corresponding		ce, thermometer, and precautions	
Excellent	0.006-0.016	0.01	0.014-0.035	0.05
Good	0.016-0.032	0.02	0.035-0.071	0.1
Fair	0.032-0.063	0.04	0.07 -0.14	0.2

75. Comparison of Tables II and III. In Table III discrepancies for 300, 600, 1000, and 5000 feet taken from Table I are compared with values taken from Table II. It is seen that for lengths up to, say, 1000 ft. there is not much difference, but beyond that point the discrepancies from Table II increase much more rapidly than do those from Table I. This is of course to be expected, since in Table II discrepancies vary as the length of the line, while in Table I they vary as the square root of the length. For example, in good chaining under ordinary conditions the apparent error for 300 ft. should not exceed from 0.035 to 0.07 (Table I) or 0.024 (Table II); for 600 ft. the values are closer, 0.049 to 0.1 (Table I) and 0.048 (Table II); for 1000 ft., 0.063 to 0.13 (Table I) and 0.08 (Table II). For 5000 ft., or a little less than a mile, the value from Table II has increased to 0.4 ft., which is 0.12 ft. greater than 0.28, the maximum value from Table I. The rougher the measurements the more striking is the difference between the two tables for lengths over 1000 ft., as shown by the first, second, and fifth lines in the above table for length 5000.

76. Requirements Corresponding to Different Limits of Precision. (*a*) In ascertaining the requirements for any given limit of precision the sources of error summarized in Art. 68, p. 43, must be considered. It is necessary to know what errors may be neglected and to what extent the others must be eliminated or corrected. This is the only way in which the surveyor can be reasonably sure that the *discrepancy* or the *probable error*, as the case may be, really indicates the precision of his work. Some of the questions he must settle are, how accurately to read the tape, to mark the tape-lengths, to keep the chain horizontal; to what extent sag must be eliminated, and within what limits the temperature must be known. In a general way the answers to these questions are indicated in Tables I and II. As a further aid, the following table of *approximate* values has been prepared. The table shows what amounts per 100 ft. correspond to different limits of precision for each of the different sources of error.

TABLE I.

	Errors per 100 ft. from different sources corresponding to diffe ent ratios of precision				
Ratio of precision	$\frac{1}{5000}$	$\frac{1}{10000}$	$\frac{1}{20000}$	$\frac{1}{50000}$	$\frac{1}{100000}$
Error in 100 ft.	0.02	0.01	0.005	0.002	0.001
	ft. or in.	ft. or in.	ft. or in.	ft. or in.	ft. or in.
1. Error in *length* of the tape	0.02 $\frac{1}{4}$	0.01 $\frac{1}{8}$	0.005 $\frac{1}{16}$	0.002 $\frac{1}{40}$	0.001 $\frac{1}{80}$
2. Dif. in *elevation* of ends of tape	2.0 24	1.4 16$\frac{3}{4}$	1.0 12	0.63 7$\frac{9}{16}$	0.44 5$\frac{3}{8}$
3. *Center* of tape out of line	1.0 12	0.7 8$\frac{3}{8}$	0.5 6	0.3 3$\frac{5}{8}$	0.24 2$\frac{7}{8}$
4. Change in *temperature*	30°	15°	7.5°	3°	1.5°
5. One *end* of tape out of line	2.0 2$\frac{1}{4}$	1.4 16$\frac{3}{4}$	1.0 12	0.63 7$\frac{9}{16}$	0.44 5$\frac{1}{4}$
6. *Sag* at the middle of tape	0.86 10$\frac{3}{8}$	0.61 7$\frac{3}{8}$	0.43 5$\frac{1}{8}$	0.27 3$\frac{1}{4}$	0.19 2$\frac{1}{4}$
7. Variation in the *pull*	30 lbs.	15. lbs	7.5 lbs.	3 lbs.	1.5 lbs.
8. Error in *marking* tape-lengths	0.02 $\frac{1}{4}$	0.01 $\frac{1}{8}$	0.005 $\frac{1}{16}$	0.002 $\frac{1}{40}$	0.001 $\frac{1}{80}$
9. Error in *reading* the tape	0.02 $\frac{1}{4}$	0.01 $\frac{1}{8}$	0.005 $\frac{1}{16}$	0.002 $\frac{1}{40}$	0.001 $\frac{1}{80}$

(*b*) The chief use for Table IV is to indicate the precautions which are necessary in order to attain certain degrees of precision. Thus, for example, it is seen that a variation of 15° in temperature will cause an error of $\frac{1}{8}''$ per 100 ft. corresponding to $\frac{1}{10000}$, and a sag of $7\frac{3}{8}''$ will cause the same error. If one end of a 100-ft. tape is 12″ out of line, it will cause an error of 0.005 ft., or $\frac{1}{16}''$ (or $\frac{1}{20000}$), while it will take a variation in pull of $7\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. to cause the same error. An error of $\frac{1}{4}''$ in the length of the tape, in marking tape-lengths, or in reading the tape, is equivalent to $\frac{1}{5000}$. An idea of the extreme precautions necessary for a precision of $\frac{1}{100000}$ is gained from the last column, where a sag of $2\frac{1}{4}''$ will in itself cause an error equal to this limit. A variation of $1\frac{1}{2}$° in temperature or $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of pull will cause the same amount; hence the need of a thermometer and spring-balance.

(*c*) *Combining errors.* It is comparatively easy to estimate the approximate error for a single tape-length which may be expected from each source of error under given conditions, but it is not a simple problem to combine these errors in order to determine the total error which may be expected in a line a number of tape-lengths long. Thus, for example, a surveyor may know: (1) That the error in the length of his tape does not exceed, say, $\frac{1}{16}''$; (2) That the maximum error in keeping his tape horizontal will not exceed 1.4 ft.; (3) That the center of his tape will never be out of line more than 4″; (4) That the variation in temperature will not exceed 15°; (5) That one end of the tape lined in by eye will never be more than 12″ out of line; (6) That sag will not exceed 7″; (7) That the variation in pull will not exceed 3 lbs.; (8) That the error in marking each tape-length will not exceed $\frac{1}{16}''$; and (9) That the tape will be read to the nearest 0.01 ft. From the table the errors in feet per 100 ft. are: (1) = 0.005, (2) = 0.01, (3) = 0.002, (4) = 0.01, (5) = 0.005, (6) = 0.01, (7) = 0.002, (8) = 0.005, (9) = 0.01.

Assuming that these values correspond to the same degree of care in chaining and that all have the same algebraic sign, their sum (0.059) is the maximum possible error that could occur in 100 feet—a precision of about $\frac{1}{1700}$. It is evident, however, that to add the errors from all nine sources, and then multiply the result by the number of tape-lengths in the length of a line, will not give the total error for the following reasons: (1) Constant errors from some sources may be plus, while constant errors from other sources may be minus, and hence even constant errors may tend to balance each other; (2) While that part of the total error due to constant or cumulative errors varies as the number of tape-lengths, that part due to accidental or compensating errors varies as the *square root* of the number of tape-lengths.

The term error as used above means the *true* or unknowable error as distinguished from the discrepancy between duplicate measurements. As already pointed out the discrepancy is not affected by constant errors (p. 11).

The problem of how far the constant error from each source must be eliminated in order that the discrepancy between two measurements of a line shall indicate the true error within prescribed limits (assuming no mistakes are made) is seen to be a complicated one. Even could proper algebraic signs be given to constant errors from different sources, it would still be difficult to assign values which would represent the same care in the corresponding operations of chaining. In practice, time and expense usually limit the precautions to be taken in eliminating constant errors, and where the work is important enough to warrant it the aim is to eliminate or correct the error from each source as far as it is possible for human skill to do it under the prevailing conditions. In ordinary work however, the practical question is not how to attain the *greatest* precision but how to attain the *required* precision, and this means that the chainmen should know what errors to slight and what not to slight. Chainmen too often waste time and effort in eliminating errors which are relatively unimportant, and ignore at the same time errors which are much more serious. A careful study of this chapter and especially of Art. 69, p. 43, and of Table IV should help to correct such a tendency.

CHAPTER VI

CHAINING. SPECIAL WORK

In this chapter methods are given for chaining between points when they are not visible from each other, for referencing points, for making a chain survey, for measuring base-lines, and for doing similar work which may arise in practice, but which is not a part of the routine of chaining.

Purely geometrical and trigonometrical problems in chaining are treated in the next chapter.

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77. Obstacles to Chaining. In addition to the two examples here given, other obstacle problems with geometrical solutions are given in Chapter VII.

(*a*) *To chain over a high wall or other similar obstacle.* Drive two nails through a board, the heads projecting on one side and the points on the other. Lay the board across the wall with the points of the nails up, and bring both nails in line. Suspend a plumb-line from the head of each nail and thus establish two points on the ground, one each side of the wall, a known distance apart (i.e., distance of nails apart). A transit-pole with plumb-lines tied to it can be used in place of the board and nails.

(*b*) *To chain between two points when woods or underbrush intervene so that neither point can be seen from the other.* Starting at one of the points A, chain along a straight line AC as nearly as can be guessed at in the direction of the other point B. Measure the distance CB that this line strikes to one side or the other of B. Assume any distance on AC as AD, and from similar triangles $DE = \frac{AD \times CB}{AC}$. Lay off DE, thus establishing the point E. If this is done with reasonable care, the line AE, when produced, should pass through B, or near enough, at least, to show where a line should be cleared for the final chaining.

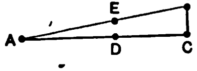

FIG. 77 (*b*).

78. Referencing a Point. (*a*) To fix its position with respect to two or more points, so that if it is lost or destroyed it may be easily restored. There are three ways of doing this with the tape, corresponding to three of the methods of locating a point in Art. 8, p. 4: (1) By two distances; (2) By offset; (3) By two intersecting lines.

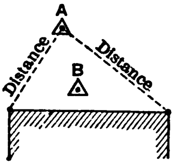

FIG. 78 (*b*).

(*b*) *Illustration.* (1) Let *A* in Fig. 78 (*b*) be a tack in a stake. Two distances from the corners of a building near by were measured, thus referencing *A*. If the stake is destroyed, another may be easily reset, *provided the intersection of the two reference-lines is sharp and definite.* The point *B*, for example, cannot be referenced accurately from the same two corners because it is too nearly in a straight line between them for the intersection to be definite.

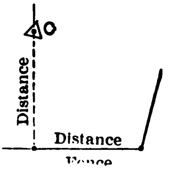

FIG. 78 (*c*).

(*c*) *Illustration.* (2) In Fig. 78 (*c*) the point *C* was referenced by measuring a distance along a fence from a fence-corner, and then another distance out at right angles. This method is more difficult and less accurate in field work than that of the preceding illustration.

(*d*) *Illustration.* (3) A third method of referencing a point is to establish two other points in the same straight line, one each side of the given point, and measure the distance from the given point to each of these reference-points. Or, better still, establish four reference-points so that the given point may be determined without measurement by the intersection of two straight lines. (See Fig. 8 (*b*), p. 4.)

79. To Chain between Two Points when Neither can be Seen from the Other. (*a*) *Illustration.* Let *A* and *D* be two points with the brow of a hill between them. One chainman, *B*, goes as far back as he can and still see *D*. The other chainman, *C*, goes as far down hill as he can and still see *A*. *B* and *C* are both out of line, but they proceed to line each other in alternately. *B* lines *C* in with *D*. *C* then lines *B* in with *A*. *B* again lines *C* in with *D*, and *C* again lines *B* in with *A*. Thus the process is carried on until both *B* and *C* are in line. Poles are set at *B* and *C*, and these enable the chainmen to measure in a straight line between *A* and *D*. The method of Art. 77 (*b*) can also be used.

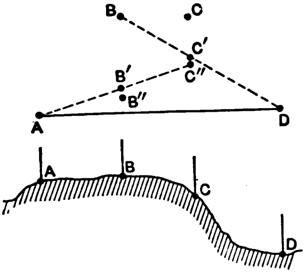

FIG. 79 (*a*).

(*b*) *Practical suggestions.* Poles may be set at *A* and *D* to begin with. The chainmen themselves can hold either poles or plumb-lines. Time will be saved if when one chainman is lining the other in he will send him a little farther in the direction in which he is moving than appears necessary. Thus in Fig. 79 (*a*) B moves C to C'' instead of to C', and C'' then moves B to B'' instead of to B', and so on.

(*c*) *Remark.* When a valley intervenes between two points a similar method can be employed to establish points on line in the valley. In most cases, however, since one point can be seen from the other, a pole is set on line with the transit. When a transit is not at hand still another method is as follows: One chainman holds a plumb-line over one point and, placing his eye so that the string covers a rod held at the other point (on the opposite hill), lines in a second rod held in the valley until it too is covered by the string.

80. To Make a Chain Survey. It is sometimes necessary to make a complete survey using the tape only. In many cases this can be done with as great accuracy as the purpose of the survey requires. In Fig. 80 is shown the survey of a house and lot, in which no angles were measured. A station S was chosen from which all four corners of the lot could be seen. The four sides of the lot and the four dotted lines were measured. From these eight measurements the boundaries of the lot were plotted. Had it not been for the house it would have been simpler to divide the quadrilateral by diagonals into two triangles instead of four.

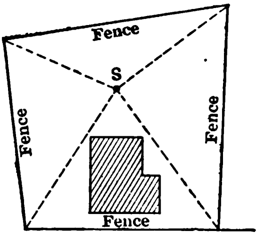

Fig. 80.

(*a*) *Question.* What is the best method of locating the house by linear measurements only?

(*b*) *Question.* If desired, how can the angle at each of the four fence-corners be found from the eight original measurements?

(*c*) *General method for a chain survey.* Establish a system of triangles to serve as reference-lines. This network of triangles should be as simple as possible and planned with an eye to locating details. Measure the three sides of each triangle. Locate details with respect to the most convenient reference-lines by any of the methods for linear measurement given in Chapter XIII.

(*d*) *Remark.* The transit is used so generally that students are apt to think that a survey cannot be made with a tape alone. For short lines and small areas, however, the tape will often answer every purpose. Even horizontal angles can be measured with it (p. 63), though this is not often necessary. The reference-lines are laid out in triangles to save measuring angles, and this is the chief difference between a chain survey and a transit survey.

81. Locating Houses, Fences, Streets, Streams, and Other Details with the Tape. Not only in chain surveys but in transit surveys as well, the chainmen are often called upon to locate details of the survey with reference to transit lines by the use of the tape alone. The methods of locating such details by linear measurements only are fully discussed in Chapter XIII.

82. To Measure a Base-line, *or any other straight line with more than ordinary accuracy.* There are several devices for measuring base-lines with great accuracy (see Chapter XVI). The following method in which a steel tape is used should give results accurate enough for most purposes; i.e., with reasonable care the *discrepancy* between two measurements of the same line should not exceed $\frac{1}{10000}$. The tape is supported by stakes, the pull is kept at standard with a spring-balance, and a thermometer gives the temperature for which correction is made. Thus the three chief sources of error are as far as possible avoided. The work may be outlined as follows:

(1) Drive stakes at short intervals along the line so that when a tape is stretched across the tops it will be horizontal. The distances between the stakes should be such that the end of the tape will come on a stake each time that the tape is stretched.

(2) Stretch the tape, using a spring-balance at one end to keep the pull at 8 lbs. or 12 lbs. or whatever the standard for the tape may be, mark the end of each tape-length with a fine scratch on top of the stake, and from a thermometer reading correct the *total* measurement for temperature (see Art. 62, p. 40).

(3) Repeat the measurement a number of times and take for the final result the arithmetical mean of all the measurements, discarding, of course, any measurement which is obviously incorrect.

(1) *Practical suggestions.* Use large stakes, say 2″×4″ for intermediate stakes and 4″×4″ or 6″×6″ for the two end hubs. All stakes must be *firmly* set. They may be lined in with the transit and the tops sawed off to a level, or nails may be driven in the sides of the stakes, the tape resting on the nails. The latter method is not recommended for work of great precision. A zinc plate upon which to make the scratches is sometimes put on the top of each stake. In important work the two end stakes or hubs should be made more or less permanent and the ends of the base-line *carefully* referenced (p. 54). This is sometimes done by setting the hub in concrete and building a fence around it to keep it from being disturbed during construction. To keep the tape in position on the tops of supporting stakes drive two small nails part way into each stake so that there will be one on each side of the tape when it is stretched.

(2) When it is impracticable to set stakes on a level they may be set with their tops (or supporting nails) on a known slope, and the measured length is then corrected for the slope. Occasionally it may be necessary

to divide a base-line into several sections, each section at a different level, the plumb-line being used as in ordinary chaining but with more precautions to insure accuracy.

Remark. The author's classes have sometimes used the following method for measuring a base-line through thick underbrush. The line was first cleared by cutting the brush to within a foot or so of the ground. Tripods, belonging to a number of levels and transits, were set in line, 20 ft. apart, with their tops on a level. These acted as supports for the tape, keeping it three feet or so above the ground. As fast as tripods were left behind they were taken up and set on line in advance of the tape. If care is taken to prevent any movement of the tripods while they are being used, excellent results can be obtained.

Such a large number of tripods will seldom be available in practice, but rough tripods can be easily constructed and used in their places. For an example of a more elaborate apparatus for supporting and stretching the tape, used for very precise measurements, see *Engineering News*, Feb. 1, 1894, July 12, 1894, Sept. 14, 1902; also Transactions A. S. C. E., Aug. 1902, and Johnson's Surveying, p. 498.

(3) Ideal conditions for base-line measurements are (1) level ground, (2) cloudy weather, and (3) the same temperature as that for which the tape is standard. Needless to say all three of these conditions seldom exist in practice. It is difficult to ascertain the temperature of a tape lying in the sun, hence a cloudy day or even the night-time is preferable for accurate measurements.

(4) A finely divided scale may be used to measure the decimal of a foot in the end measurement.

(5) Rough devices with turnbuckles for keeping the tape steady and at a given pull are easily constructed and add greatly to the accuracy of measurements. These devices are usually frameworks which can be quickly moved and set up to hold the tape, thus taking the place of the chainmen. In the absence of such a device each chainman can brace his hands by a stake held obliquely with one end on the ground to resist the pull. Whatever happens the supporting stakes should not be disturbed.

(6) In chaining a base-line it is desirable to chain in opposite directions and to proceed in such a manner that in marking where the end of the tape comes one is not influenced by scratches made in previous measurements.

Illustration. The supporting stakes for a base-line AB are 20 ft. apart. The base-line is 420 ft. ± long. A 100-ft. steel tape is used. Five different measurements of the line can be made without having two scratches on the same stake.

$$\dot{A}\ \dot{2}\ \dot{4}\ \dot{5}\ \dot{3}\ \dot{1}\ \dot{2}\ \dot{4}\ \dot{5}\ \dot{3}\ \dot{1}\ \dot{2}\ \dot{4}\ \dot{5}\ \dot{3}\ \dot{1}\ \dot{2}\ \dot{4}\ \dot{5}\ \dot{3}\ \dot{1}\ \dot{B}$$

(1) Starting at A the scratches fall on stakes marked 1; (2) starting at B they fall on stakes marked 2; (3) starting at A with a measurement of 80 ft., the intermediate measurements being 100 ft., scratches fall on stakes marked 3; (4) starting from B with a first measurement of 80 ft. they fall on stakes marked 4; (5) finally, starting from A with 60 ft. (intermediate measurements 100 ft.) scratches fall on stakes marked 5.

83. To Find the Probable Error. Suppose that in the preceding illustration when the corrections for temperature have been made, and all other constant errors have been eliminated as far as possible, the five measurements are those given in the first column on the next page. It is required to find the probable error of a single measurement and the coefficient of precision for chaining (see p. 46). This is done by the method of least squares, using the formulas on p. 17. It will be noticed that the algebraic sum of the residuals is not zero as it should be. This is because the values of v were taken only to the nearest unit in the third decimal place, which is sufficient for all practical purposes. The work is given in detail below.

Measurement.	v	v^2
419.862	0.002	0.000004
419.863	0.003	0.000009
419.857	0.003	0.000009
419.861	0.001	0.000001
419.858	0.002	0.000004
5)4.301		$\Sigma v^2=0.000027$
419.8602 = mean		

$$E_0=0.6745\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma v^2}{n(n-1)}}.$$

$$=0.6745\times\sqrt{\frac{0.000027}{20}}$$

$$=0.00078$$

The probable error of the mean is 0.00078 or about $\frac{1}{540000}$

The probable error of a single observation is $E=0.6745\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma v^2}{n-1}}$,

or in this case $0.6745\sqrt{\frac{0.000027}{4}}=0.00175$ or about $\frac{1}{240000}$.

To determine coefficient of precision. The probable error of the total observed length $R_s=r\sqrt{N}$ (see p. 45) or $0.00175=r\sqrt{N}$ $=r\sqrt{4}+$ or $r=0.0008+$. Hence the probable error of a line say 900 ft. measured under exactly the same conditions may be expected to be about $0.0008\sqrt{9}=0.0024$ ft.

CHAPTER VII

CHAINING—PROBLEMS

THERE are certain problems which occasionally arise in chaining but which are of too infrequent occurrence to be called a part of the routine field work. These problems have been grouped for reference in this chapter. Since many of them are simply geometrical constructions, it will be helpful to remember that in working them out in the field the tape or chain is used very much as the scale and compasses are used in similar constructions in the drafting-room. Indeed many of the problems can be worked out just as well in the classroom, but each student should do enough of them in the field to gain confidence in the different methods, and in his ability to carry them out.

---

84. To Construct a Right Angle with a Tape by the 3–4–5 Method. If the lengths of the sides of a triangle are in the ratios of 3:4:5, one angle of the triangle must be 90°. Hence to construct a right angle, form a triangle with the tape, using, for example, any one of the following combinations:

[3–4–5], [6–8–10], [9–12–15], [12–16–20], [15–20–25], [18–24–30], [21–28–35], and so on.

(*a*) *Illustration.* In Fig. 84 (*a*) one chainman holds the 0 and the 48-ft. mark of a 50-ft. cloth tape together, a second man holds the tape at the 36-ft. mark, while a third holds it at the 20-ft. mark. When stretched the tape will form a right-angled triangle. (Why?)

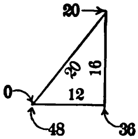

FIG. 84 (*a*).

There are two objections to the above method: (1) three chainmen are required, and (2) if a steel tape is used it cannot be bent sharply enough to form the vertices of the triangle. Another method of forming the triangle often used is shown in the following illustration:

(*b*) *Illustration.* In Fig. 84 (*b*) it is desired to construct a right angle at a point *c* in the line *ab*, one side of which shall coincide with *ac*. Establish a point *e* 30 ft. from *c*. The 0 end of a 100-ft. tape is held at *e*, the 100-ft. end at *c*, and the 50-ft. and 60-ft. marks are brought together, the portion of the tape not used forming a loop. The tape stretched tight forms a right-angled triangle with sides 30, 40, and 50 ft. long. By fastening the ends of the tape at *e* and *c* one man can do all the work.

Question. If a 50-ft. tape is used and the 25-ft. and 30-ft. marks are brought together, what should be the distance from *c* to *e*?

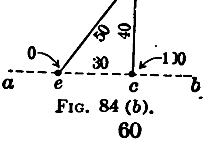

FIG. 84 (*b*).

85. Perpendiculars and Parallels. The methods of establishing perpendiculars and parallels with the tape are based upon familiar geometrical constructions. It is to be remembered, however, that straight lines and arcs of circles cannot be drawn upon the ground with the same ease that they can be drawn on paper; the ground is often so rough or sloping that they cannot be drawn at all. In many cases, therefore, chainmen must exercise ingenuity in applying geometrical principles. The difference between methods of the drafting-room and methods of field work in making the same geometrical construction is brought out in the following illustrations. *It is important not only to know geometrical constructions, but also to know how the tape should be used in making them.*

(*a*) *To erect a perpendicular at any point in a line.* The 3–4–5 method of the previous article may be used. Two other methods are indicated in Figs. 85 (*b*) and 85 (*c*).

(*b*) *Illustration. Geometrical construction.* Required to erect a perpendicular at *b* to the line *ab*. From *any* point *c* describe an arc of a circle of radius *cb*, intersecting *ab* at *e*. Find *d* in line with *ec*.

Field work. The field work with a 100-ft. tape could be done as follows: Establish *c* 50 ft. from *b* by holding 0 at *b*. Keeping the 50-ft. mark at *c*, find *e* by swinging the 0 end of the tape and with 0 at *e*, 50-ft. mark still at *c*, stretch the tape until the 100-ft. mark determines *d*.

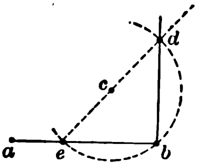

FIG. 85 (*b*).

(*c*) *Illustration.* The difference between using the compasses and the tape is illustrated in Fig. 85 (*c*). With the compasses everything is done with intersecting arcs as indicated in the figure. With the tape a better way is as follows: With the 25-ft. mark at *b*, establish *c* opposite the 0 mark and *d* opposite the 50-ft. mark. Keeping 0 at *c*, hold the 100-ft. mark at *d* and stretch the tape, establishing *e* at the middle of the tape (50-ft. mark). Or if it is a steel tape, bring the 45-ft. mark and 55-ft. mark together to avoid bending, thus establishing a point on the perpendicular 45 ft. from both *c* and *d*. If a check is desired, find another point on the opposite side of the line in exactly the same manner, or if this be impossible, another point on the same side, using different distances.

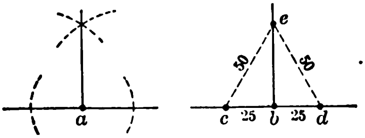

FIG. 85 (*c*).

(*d*) *Remark.* In each of the above illustrations notice that *one* point of the tape was fixed during the entire work in order to save unnecessary settings of the tape. In the geometrical constructions which follow it is not enough *simply to recognize* the method, but consider carefully how each one could be carried out in the field, setting and stretching the tape the smallest number of times.

To let fall a perpendicular to a given line from any given point.

(*e*) In Fig. 85 (*e*) from the given point P swing an arc intersecting the given line in two points. The required perpendicular through P passes half-way between the two points of intersection.

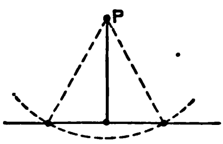

FIG. 85 (*e*).

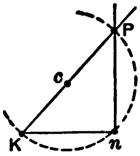

FIG. 85 (*f*).

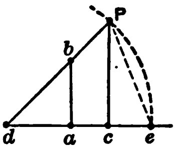

FIG. 85 (*g*).

Question. If an arc could not be drawn on the ground, how would the tape be used?

(*f*) In Fig. 85 (*f*) the construction is that of Fig. 85 (*b*) worked backward. Choose any convenient point on the line as K, find the point c half-way between P and K, and with c as a center and cK as a radius cut the given line at n, the foot of the required perpendicular.

(*g*) In Fig. 85 (*g*) a perpendicular is first erected at any convenient point as a, and a line through P constructed parallel to it. See Arts. 85 (*h*), 85 (*i*), and 85 (*j*). Or any two points as d and b may be assumed in line with P, and c, the foot of the required perpendicular, found from similar triangles

$$dc = \frac{da \times dP}{db}.$$

A second method. With any point on the given line as d swing an arc through P intersecting the given line at e. To find c, since $dP = de$, then $ce = \frac{\overline{Pe}^2}{2de}$.

Question. How could the methods of Fig. 85 (*g*) be best carried out with a tape?

Question. What methods of erecting or letting fall a perpendicular are best adapted when the perpendicular is near or at the end of a line and the line itself cannot be produced?

To run a line through a given point parallel to a given line.

(*h*) In Fig. 85 (*h*) a perpendicular Pp is let fall from the given point to the given line, and at some other point in the line as r another perpendicular rs of equal length is erected.

(*i*) In Fig. 85 (*i*) choose any convenient point on the given line as *c* and find *a* half-way between *P* and *c*. Assume a point *e* and make *ab* equal *ea*.

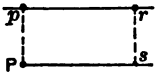

FIG. 85 (*h*).

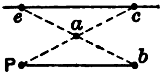

FIG. 85 (*i*).

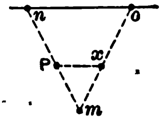

FIG. 85 (*j*).

(*j*) In Fig. 85 (*j*) assume any convenient line as *mn* through *P*, and make *mo* equal to *mn*. Find *x* when $mx = mP$.

Remark. Other methods will suggest themselves to the student. The method of Fig. 85 (*i*) is quick and accurate and easily checked by the method of Fig. 85 (*h*). A check on the method of Fig. 85 (*h*) is the equality of the diagonals.

86. Laying off or Measuring Angles.—Angles may be laid off by means of a steel tape with considerable accuracy, the error often not exceeding 5′. The trigonometrical methods of the chapter on *Plotting Angles*, Part II, are used. Since measurements are in feet instead of in inches and since the tape is used instead of drawing-instruments, the operations in the field are somewhat different from those in the drawing-room, as, for example, when erecting perpendiculars, but the trigonometrical methods are of course the same.

(*a*) *Tangent method.* (See p. 458.) The base by which the tangent of the angle is to be multiplied may be any convenient number of feet, say 50′ or 100′. Perpendiculars are erected by one of the methods of Art. 85.

(*b*) *Chord method.* (See p. 459.) The unit radius may be any convenient number of feet, say 50′ or 100′. As circles cannot often be drawn on the ground, many of the practical suggestions for using the compasses do not hold good for the tape. Use the tape in a manner similar to that shown in Fig. 86 (*b*), one portion of the tape stretched to form the chord of known length, the other portion forming the required side of the angle.

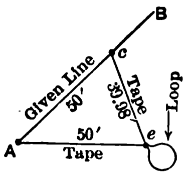

FIG. 86 (*b*).

Illustration. To lay off an angle of 47° 8′ clockwise from *AB*, using 100-ft. tape. Chord for unit radius is 0.7996. For 50 ft. it is 39.98 ft. Find *c* 50′ from *A* on *AB*. Holding 0 mark at *c* and 100 mark at *A*, bring 50-ft. mark and 39.98 together. This will give *e*, a point on the required side.

Remark. The chord method is usually the most satisfactory one to use in the field.

(*c*) *Sine-cosine method.* For any unit radius the sine and cosine distances can be found and used in the same way that the two distances were used in the preceding example.

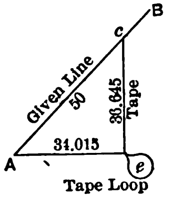

FIG. 86 (*c*).

Illustration. To lay off an angle of 47° 8′. Sine =0.7329, cosine=0.6803. Find *c* 50′ from *A* as before. sin × 50 = 36.645, cos × 50 = 34.015. When the tape is stretched as shown in the figure it will form a *right angle* at *e*, a point on the required side.

(*d*) *Measuring angles.* Angles between two given lines may be measured with the tape by reversing the methods outlined in this article.

87. Obstacles to Chaining which prevent chainmen from measuring directly between two points give rise to a set of problems in which distances are found by indirect measurements. In this article these problems are all solved by geometrical methods.*

Obstacles to chaining are of two kinds: (1) *obstacles to measurement* and (2) *obstacles to alignment.* For any problem likely to occur in practice there are usually several geometrical solutions; it will suffice to give two for each problem.†

(*a*) *To measure between two points when both are accessible.*

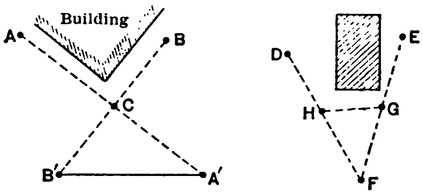

FIG. 87 (*a*)

First method. Assume *C*, make $CB' = BC$ and $CA' = AC$; then $A'B' = AB$.

Second method. Establish *F* at any point equal distances from *D* and *E*. Make $FH = FG$ any convenient distance. Then $DE = (HG \times DF) \div HF$. (See Fig. 87 (*b*), p. 65, for a third method.)

(*b*) *To measure between two points when one is inaccessible.*

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* Many of the same problems can be more easily solved by trigonometrical methods, provided a transit is used. (See Chapter XVIII.)

† The student with a good knowledge of geometry should be able to devise other methods. For a very complete collection of obstacle problems and solutions see Gillespie's Surveying, Vol. I, pages 76–99.

st *method.* Lay off AC any convenient length perpen- r to the required distance AB, and lay off DC perpen- r to BC. Then $AB=AC^2\div AD$.

ond method. Assume I anywhere in line with the required ce FG. Assume H anywhere. Make $HJ=HI$ and HK . Establish L in the line FH and at the same time in ne JK produced. Then $KL=FG$.

Other methods. Assuming that the point B in Fig. 87 (*b*) a fixed point but any point in line on the opposite bank river, how could an equilateral triangle be constructed sed for finding the distance AB? How could a right le with a 60° angle at C be used for finding the same ce?

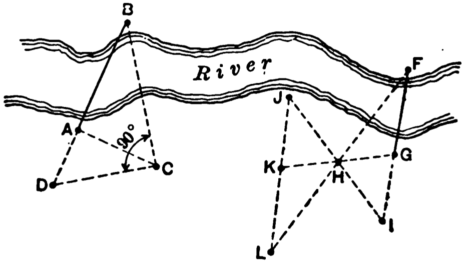


FIG. 87 (*b*).

To measure to an inaccessible point high above ground, i.e., asure the height of an object. Set a transit-pole in the d some distanc from the object and with the eye some way from the pole sight across the top of the pole to the ssible point. This line of sight is the hypothenuse of two r triangles; the unknown height is the vertical side of iangle, and the transit-pole the vertical side of the other. wo bases of the triangles can be measured and the pro- n formed. This method will of course give only approxi- results.

To measure between two points when both are inaccessible. st *method.* AB, Fig. 87 (*e*), is the required distance, A and ng both inaccessible. Assume any line CC' and find its point D. Assume E in AC, and F in BC. Make $DE'=$ nd $DF'=DF$. Find A' at the intersection of AD and and find B' at the intersection of BD and $F'C'$. Then AB. (Why?)

Second method. GH, Fig. 87 (*e*), is the required distance. sume I anywhere. Find the distances GI and HI by eit

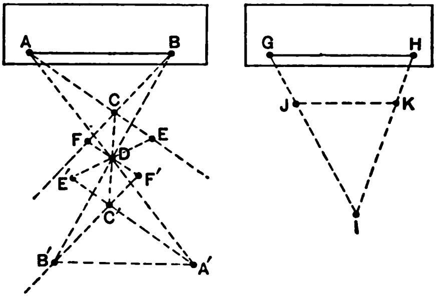


FIG. 87 (*e*).

method of Fig. 87 (*b*). Assume J anywhere in GI. Lay $IK = (HI \times JI) \div GI$. Measure JK. Then $GH = (JK \times GI) \div$

(*f*) *To prolong a straight line through an obstacle.*

First method. Let AB be the line to be prolonged in Fig. 87

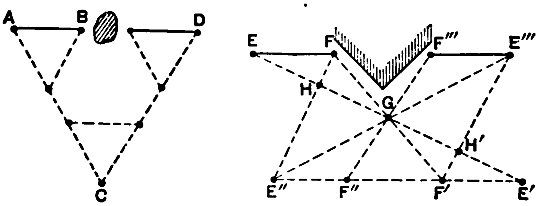


FIG. 87 (*f*).

Construct an equilateral triangle ACD by constructing a sma equilateral triangle at each apex A, C, and D. This is anot method also of measuring between two points.

Second method. EF in Fig. 87 (*f*) is to be prolonged. Ass G. Make $GF' = FG$, $GE' = EG$, $GF'' = GF'$, $E''F'' = E$ $GF''' = GF''$, and $GE''' = GE''$. (This method is a do application of that shown in Fig. 87 (*a*).) If more conven instead of finding F'' assume E'' *anywhere* in line with F find H at intersection of $E''F$ and EG, make $GH' = HG$, find E''' at intersection of $E''G$ and $F'H'$. A second p could be determined in a similar manner.

CHAPTER VIII

READING ANGLES

This chapter is divided into two parts to correspond to two distinct steps in reading an angle: (1) reading the *limb*, and (2) reading the *vernier*. In the first part are shown several different graduations of the limb, and in the second part several forms of verniers. To study all these graduations at the outset is likely to lead to confusion. Begin with the simplest forms, as, for example, a limb graduated continuously (page 70), and a vernier reading to minutes (page 78).

Observe the common mistakes as illustrated by the incorrect readings in the book, and then practice with a transit graduated to correspond. When this much is thoroughly understood it is an easy matter to proceed with a transit more finely graduated.

88. The Two Horizontal Plates. One of the horizontal plates carries the graduated circle, the other plate carries the vernier. The uprights (or standards) which support the telescope are attached to the vernier plate, and the zero of the vernier serves as an indicator. Hence the telescope cannot be revolved right or left without taking the indicator with it, and the *horizontal* angle through which it is turned is measured by the arc on the graduated limb passed over by the indicator. If the indicator is opposite the zero of the limb when the telescope points to the backsight, and stops exactly opposite a graduation-mark when the telescope is turned to the foresight, the angle is read *without* the use of the vernier; when, as is more often the case, the indicator stops *between* graduation-marks the vernier reading tells how far it has passed beyond the last mark.

89. Limb Graduations. The limb of the transit is always divided into 360°, and every *tenth* degree is usually numbered, but there are several systems of numbering and several methods of subdividing each degree.

(*a*) *Common systems of numbering limb graduations.* (1) *Full circle,* 0° to 360° (see p. 70); (2) *Half-circle,* 0° to 180°, then backward to 0° (p. 72); (3) *Quadrant,* two zeroes 180° apart, with numbers running up to 90° both ways from each zero (p. 74).

(*b*) *Common methods of subdividing each degree.* (1) Into two parts, or 30′; (2) into three parts, or 20′; (3) into four parts, or 15′; (4) into six parts, or 10′.

(*c*) *Remark.* On most transits there are two rows of numbers, the outer row often corresponding to one system, the inner row to another. Each system has its advantages and is adapted to some particular kind of work. On an ordinary transit each degree is divided into two or, at the most, three parts; it is only on instruments intended for more precise work that the limb is divided to 15′ or 10′.

90. General Method of Reading Angles. There are three distinct steps: (1) Reading the limb; (2) Reading the vernier; (3) Adding the two readings.

Remark. The majority of mistakes made in reading angles are made in reading the limb, and not in reading the vernier. Moreover, a mistake in reading the limb usually amounts to at least 20′ or 30′ and often to several *degrees,* while a mistake in reading the vernier is seldom over a minute or two. Hence the working rule "*Make sure of the limb reading before looking at the vernier.*" In learning to read angles the same rule holds good.

91. Reading the Limb. (*a*) No matter in which direction the plate carrying the indicator revolves there are always two readings for an angle: one is the value of the angle measured clockwise from the backsight, and the other is the value measured counter-clockwise *from the same backsight.* Each value is the explement of the other, i.e., their sum is 360°. See p. 94.

If angles were always measured to the right (clockwise), the numbers of the graduations on the limb would always increase *clockwise,* and a common source of mistakes would be removed. In some kinds of work, however, as in deflection angles, p. 117, readings are taken right and left and this calls for numbers which increase counter-clockwise as well as clockwise. These two rows of numbers must not be used indiscriminately—a constant source of mistakes with beginners.

(*b*) *Limb readings for angles to the right.* Consider the indicator to have moved *clockwise.* (It is immaterial whether it did or not.) Observe which row of graduations increases *clockwise,* note the last number on that row passed by the indicator, and from this number determine the value of the graduation-mark opposite the indicator or just behind it. (See p. 70.)

(*c*) *Limb readings for angles to the left.* Proceed in a similar manner, but consider the indicator to have moved counter-clockwise, and use the row in which the numbers increase counter-clockwise. (See p. 70.)

(*d*) *Remark.* For angles clockwise numbers increase clockwise, and for angles counter-clockwise numbers increase counter-clockwise. If one could stand *inside* the graduated circle, numbers for angles to the right would increase towards his right hand, and for angles to the left they would increase towards his left. Since, however, the observer stands *outside* of the circle, the numbers for angles to the right increase towards his *left* hand, and *vice versa.* This leads to confusion which would be avoided if the terms clockwise and counter-clockwise were always used in place of right and left respectively.

92. Common Mistakes in Reading the Limb. (1) Reading the number *ahead* of the indicator instead of behind it. (2) Reading the inner circle of numbers instead of the outer circle, or *vice versa.* (3) Reading *even* degrees instead of degrees and fractions of a degree, as, for example, 43° 0′ instead of 43° 30′, or 11° 0′ instead of 11° 20′.

93. Method of Reading the Limb Illustrated. On the succeeding pages are shown three different systems of numbering the graduations on the limb. The full circle as shown is about half the true size. Below the circle is a portion of the limb greatly enlarged. The vernier is purposely omitted, but the indicators represent four different positions of the zero of the vernier. The readings noted *below* the arc are for angles taken to the right as indicated by the arrow, while those *above* the arc are for angles to the left. The first two common mistakes noted in the preceding article are illustrated by the incorrect readings in parenthesis. The third mistake will be illustrated in the explanation of vernier readings (pp. 76–82), since it is most often made when adding the limb reading and the vernier reading together.

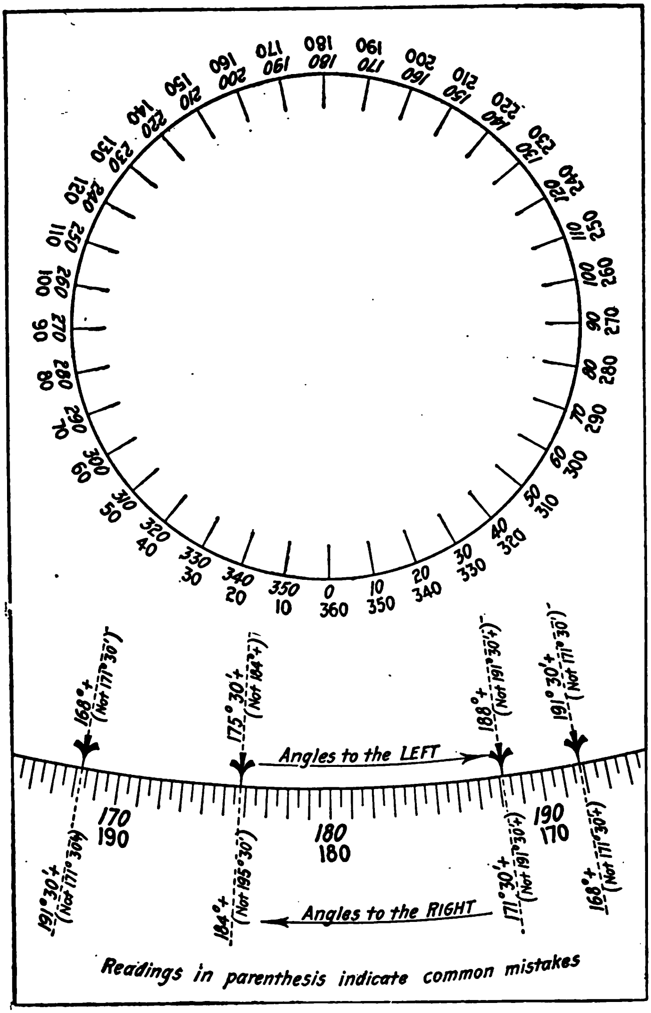
Suggestions. In studying the illustrations keep in mind the fact that the limb of a transit remains stationary during the interval between the backsight and foresight while the indicator moves over an arc equal to the angle measured. Understand clearly the difference between measuring an angle to the right (clockwise) and to the left (counter-clockwise). The following method of studying the illustrations is suggested:

(1) Choose one of the four indicators, assume the angle to have been measured clockwise, and cover with a card the readings below the arc.

(2) Notice which circle of numbers is increasing clockwise, find the number just behind the indicator, count up the intervening spaces, and read the angle.

(3) Remove the card and see if the reading agrees with that given on the figure. Observe also the mistaken reading in parenthesis, and consider from what cause the mistake might be made.

(4) Repeat the three steps given above for each of the other three indicators; also, for all four indicators assuming that angles were measured counter-clockwise.



Readings in parenthesis indicate common mistakes

Fig. 94.

94. Full-circle System from 0° to 360° in Both Directions. (*a*) This is one of the best systems of numbers for all-around work. Angles may be measured in either direction, to the right or to the left, without confusion, provided simple precautions are taken. Thus for angles to the right always read the outside row if that is the row in which numbers increase *clockwise*, while for angles to the left read the inside row. *When, as is often the case, all angles are taken to the right, ignore the inside row: make it a point not to use it at all.* In some makes of instruments the numbers slant in the direction in which they should be read. (See full circle, opposite page.)

(*b*) The portion of the limb shown enlarged is where the two circles have the number 180° in common, and this is where the mistake of reading the wrong circle of numbers is most likely to occur. Where the numbers are widely different it is usually sheer carelessness to read one for the other. If, for example, an angle of 100° is taken to the right, the indicator will stop opposite 100° and 260°, but an alert transitman would see that the angle could not be over 180° (the backsight produced), and hence would not read 260° in place of 100°. This illustrates, incidentally, the value of *habitually checking readings by estimating angles with the eye.*

(*c*) When the indicator stops just before it reaches a number it is a natural mistake to read as if it had gone by the number. This mistake is illustrated by the two incorrect readings of 171° 30′ and 195° 30′ for angles to the right, and by all of the incorrect readings to the left except 171° 30′ in place of 191° 30′. (What mistake does this illustrate?)

(*d*) Notice that the sum of the outer number and the inner number at *any* point is always 360°. Hence when there is only one circle of numbers (0° to 360° clockwise) and it is desired to read an angle to the left, consider the indicator to have moved to the left (*counter*-clockwise), but subtract the nearest number behind the indicator from 360°, and proceed as if the number were actually engraved upon the limb, as in fact it is when there are two circles. As the subtraction involves only *even degrees*, this method is better than to read to the right and subtract from 360°, for the latter subtraction involves *minutes* as well as degrees. Mountain transits and other transits intended for measuring angles to the right only and hence having but one circle of numbers, may be used for measuring angles to the left by simply imagining the explementary number engraved on the limb as just suggested. (See Art. 95 (d).)

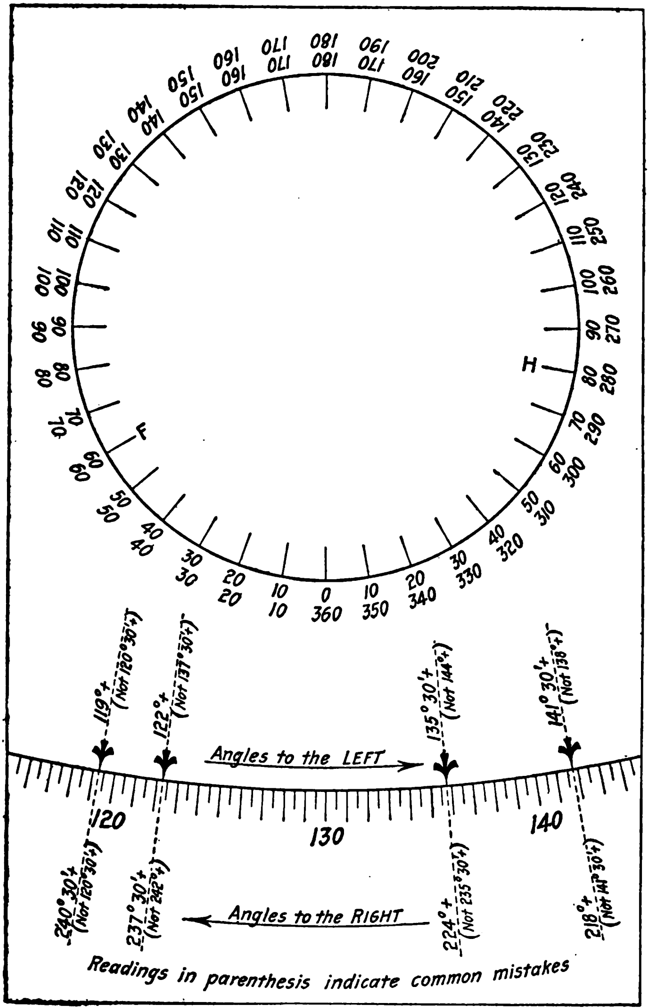

F
H
119°+ (Not 120°30'+)
122°+ (Not 137°30'+)
135°30'+ (Not 144°+)
141°30'+ (Not 138°+)
Angles to the LEFT
120
130
140
240°30'+ (Not 120°30'+)
237°30'+ (Not 242°+)
224°+ (Not 235°30'+)
218°+ (Not 141°30'+)
Angles to the RIGHT
Readings in parenthesis indicate common mistakes

FIG. 95.

95. Combination of Full-circle and Half-circle Systems. (*a*) In the figure on the opposite page the outside circle of numbers is a *full*-circle system, increasing clockwise exactly like the outside circle in the preceding illustration. No further explanation of its use, therefore, is needed.

The inner circle is a *half*-circle system and is used for measuring angles which do not exceed 180°, as, for example, deflection angles (p. 117). Thus, if the indicator is at *F* in the inner circle, the deflection angle is 60° to the right, but if it is at *H*, the deflection angle is 80° to the left.

(*b*) The portion of the limb shown enlarged is near the 230° mark of the outer circle, but the outer numbers have purposely been omitted. The angles to the left are read in the usual manner. The mistaken readings for angles to the left all come from reading the number in front of the indicator instead of the number behind it. There is, of course, the same danger of reading the wrong row of numbers as in the preceding illustration.

(*c*) Notice that the sum of the corresponding numbers in the outer and inner rows is always 360° *after passing the 180° mark of the outer circle.* On some instruments, intended only for measuring deflection angles, the full-circle system is omitted. Suppose that it is desired to measure angles to the right *over* 180° on such an instrument. After the indicator passes 180° the numbers run backward or in the wrong direction for angles to the right. Subtract the number behind the indicator from 360°, and proceed as if the result were engraved on the limb as explained in the preceding article.

(*d*) *Illustration.* On the enlarged arc it is observed that the numbers are increasing in the wrong direction for angles to the right. If the indicator is between 120° and 130°, the number behind it, for angles to the right, is 130°. Hence 360 − 130 = 230°, and proceeding as if 230° were engraved opposite 130, as it really is when there are two rows of numbers (see complete circle), the final reading is 237° 30′ +. Likewise, if the indicator is between 140° and 150°, the number behind it (outside the limits of the drawing) is 150, and hence 360 − 150 = 210°, from which 8° more is counted clockwise, making the final reading 218° +. The other readings, 224° + and 240° 30′, are obtained in a similar manner.

(*e*) *Remark.* In taking deflection angles it is desirable to keep the zero of the limb nearly under the eyepiece of the telescope to save walking around the instrument when reading angles. If the half-circle system is used, it will be necessary, after setting the indicator at zero, *to plunge the telescope before backsighting.* In order to avoid this the *quadrant* system of numbering is often preferable, especially in railway work, where deflection angles are seldom more than 90°. This system is illustrated on the next page.

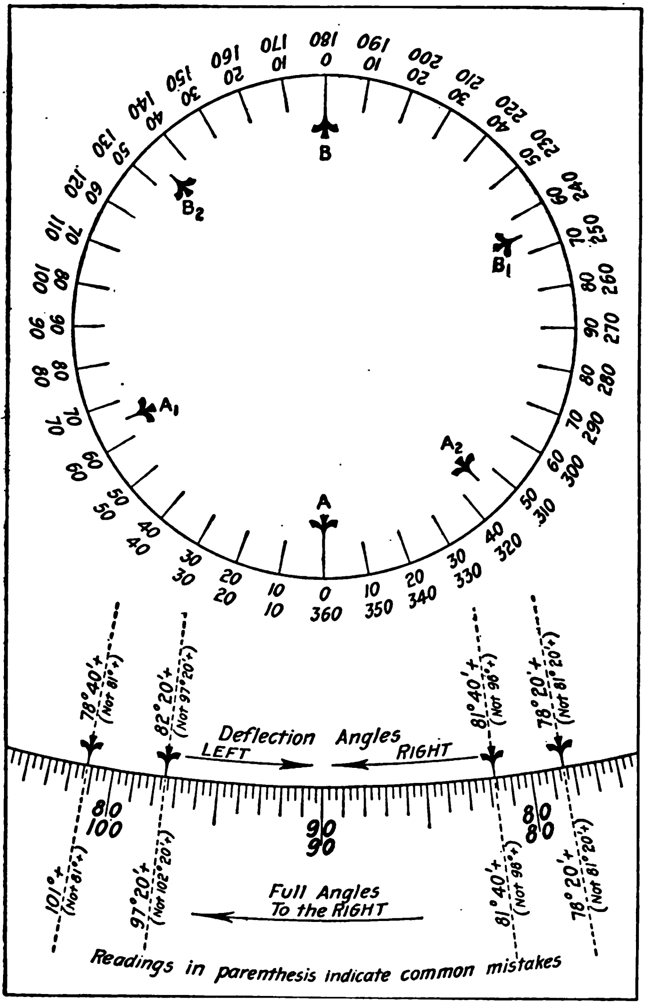

B
B2
B1
A
A1
A2
78°40'+ (Not 81°+)
82°20'+ (Not 97°20'+)
81°40'+ (Not 98°+)
78°20'+ (Not 81°20'+)
Deflection Angles
LEFT
RIGHT
101°+ (Not 81°+)
97°20'+ (Not 102°20'+)
81°40'+ (Not 98°+)
78°20'+ (Not 81°20'+)
Full Angles To the RIGHT
Readings in parenthesis indicate common mistakes

FIG. 96.

96. Combination of Full-circle and Quadrant Systems. (*a*) There are two zero points in the quadrant system (see inner circle), and there should be two verniers to correspond, the *A* vernier, nearly under the eye-end of the telescope, and the *B* vernier, across the circle 180° from *A*. Observe the following rules: 1. *Always set the A vernier at the 360° mark or zero of the full-circle system;* (2) *For all angles except deflection angles ignore the quadrant numbering and invariably use the full circle exactly as explained on p. 71;* (3) *For deflection angles use the inner row just as it stands for angles, right or left, up to 90°.* For angles over 90° subtract the number on the inner row from 180°, and proceed as if the result were engraved on the limb in place of the number subtracted. (See similar case, preceding article.)

(*b*) *Caution.* A common mistake is to set the *A* vernier at one of the zeroes of the quadrant system but opposite the 180° mark of the full circle, and then to read from the full circle as if the *A* vernier had been set at the 360° mark. This mistake of 180° may be avoided by invariably using the full circle in setting the *A* vernier, even in deflection angles.

(*c*) *Deflection angles.* When using the quadrant system it is not necessary to plunge the telescope before backsighting. This is its chief advantage over the half-circle system. In setting the *A* vernier at 360° the *B* vernier is necessarily brought opposite one of the zeroes of the quadrant system, and after the telescope is plunged for *foresighting* the *B* vernier will be the one under the eyepiece. Hence the angle is read from the *B* vernier to save walking around the instrument.

(*d*) *Illustration.* If the indicator of the *A* vernier is set at *A* (see opposite page), the *B* vernier will be at *B*. After plunging for the foresight the *B* vernier will be under the eye-end of the telescope, and if it goes to B_1, the deflection angle is between 60° and 70° to the *right;* if it goes to B_2, the deflection angle is between 40° and 50° to the *left.* The same results could be obtained by reading the *A* vernier in the positions A_1 and A_2 respectively, but it would be necessary to walk around the instrument.

The portion of the limb shown enlarged is one of the two places where mistakes are most likely to occur; the other place is across the circle near the 270° mark. Notice that the smallest division on the limb is 20′—a division which may be used as well with any of the other systems of numbers. It is perhaps more usual to use a half-degree division with the quadrant system, but the one-third degree division is shown here for practice in reading. The readings given below the arc are for direct angles taken clockwise, and were obtained from the outer row of numbers; readings above the arc are for deflection angles and were obtained from the inner row.

97. Verniers. (*a*) It is easier to read a vernier correctly, once the least count has been ascertained, than it is to read the limb, and mistakes are less costly (p. 68). Generally if a vernier is divided into ten equal spaces between numbers as shown on p. 78, it reads to minutes, i.e., each space is *called* a minute though it really covers nearly a degree. If the equal spaces are again subdivided into two parts, each part is *called* 30″ (p. 80); if subdivided into three parts, each of the smallest parts is *called* 20″ (p. 81); if into six parts, each part is *called* 10″ (p. 82).

(*b*) *Remark.* It helps, in reading the vernier, to think of the larger divisions as minutes, and the smaller subdivisions, if there are any, as 30″ or 20″ or 10″, as the case may be. It is well to remember, however, that each space on the vernier really covers a much greater arc than is indicated by what we call it.

(*c*) *The least count* as determined by inspection should be verified when using any vernier for the first time. From the principle of the vernier the least count, i.e., the difference between l, the smallest division on the limb, and v, the smallest division on the vernier, is $x=l-v=\frac{l}{n+1}$, where n represents the number of spaces on the limb corresponding to $n+1$ spaces on the vernier, or $nl=(n+1)v$, from which equation the value of x is derived. For verniers as usually constructed the following rule will also apply:

Divide the value of the smallest division on the limb by the number of parts on the vernier.

98. To Read a Vernier. Keeping in mind the value of the smallest division on the vernier it is an easy matter to get the vernier reading. If the zero or indicator exactly coincides with a mark on the limb, the angle is read without using the vernier (p. 67); otherwise find some mark on the vernier which is exactly opposite some mark on the limb. It is immaterial what the mark on the limb is,—the mark on the vernier determines the *vernier* reading. The limb reading to which the vernier reading must be added is determined separately, as explained in the first part of the chapter.

99. Suggestions for Read [illegible] Verniers. (1) *Double verniers* like those shown on [illegible] ages would be unnecessary
if angles were always tak [illegible] *that side of*
a double vernier which [illegible], the direc-
tion in which [illegible] in reading

the limb (p. 68). (2) When reading the limb estimate at a glance the approximate vernier reading. This not only saves time by indicating where to look on the vernier for the line of coincidence, but it often saves blunders such as reading the wrong side of a double vernier. (3) Form the habit of looking at one or two marks each side of the vernier mark which you think is in coincidence. If three marks coincide, take the middle one; if two marks coincide, take the average reading. In the latter case the reading will be closer than the least count of the vernier. For example, the reading will be to 30″ on a vernier which only reads to minutes. (See p. 78.) This means that *the error involved in reading any vernier is not greater than half the least count of that vernier.* (4) In setting the vernier at zero or at any angle, examine in the same way one or two marks each side of the indicator. (5) When there are two verniers 180° apart use the one under the eye-end of the telescope. Avoid setting one at zero and reading the other, except in special cases like that explained on p. 75. (6) Use a reading-glass (p. 98). (7) Practical suggestions for measuring angles are given in Chapter IX.

100. Common Mistakes in Reading Verniers. (1) Mistakes due to reading the wrong half of a double vernier. (2) Arithmetical mistakes in adding the vernier reading to the limb reading, or, what is still more common, dropping the *minutes* from the original limb reading, as 68° 16′ instead of 68° 46′ (p. 78). Do not be so intent on reading the vernier as to lose track of the correct limb reading. Remember that the latter is by far the more important. (3) In verniers reading to seconds the mistake is sometimes made of calling seconds minutes, as 151° 40′ instead of 151° 0′ 40″ (p. 81). This is most likely to happen when the vernier reading is less than a minute.

101. Illustrations of Verniers. In studying the following illustrations of different verniers keep in mind: (1) That the vernier and limb are enlarged to a little more than twice the usual size; (2) The lowest line of each illustration shows how the least count is obtained from the formula on p. 76, Art. 97 (*c*); (3) The whole process of reading the angle is indicated: first the limb reading, then the plus sign, then the vernier reading, and finally the total reading. The mistaken readings in parentheses are wholly mistakes in vernier readings or in dropping minutes from the original limb readings.

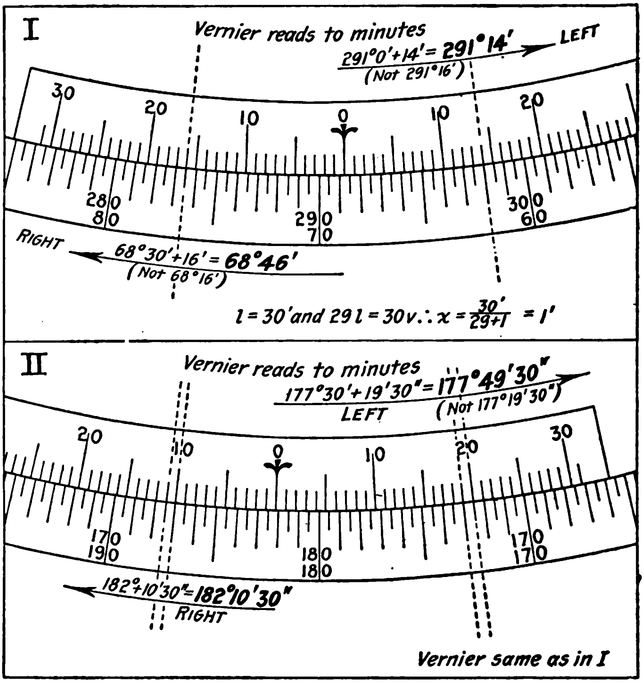


Fig. 102.

102. I. and II. Verniers Reading to Minutes. (*a*) This is one of the forms of verniers most used in ordinary work. The mistake of 291° 16′ instead of 291° 14′ came from reading the wrong half of the double vernier. In the mistake of 68° 16′ instead of 68° 46′ the 30′ of the original limb reading was forgotten when it came to adding the readings. The mistake of 177° 19′ 30″ instead of 177° 49′ 30″ came in a similar manner from dropping the minutes from the original limb reading.

(*b*) In II two marks on the vernier apparently coincide with two on the limb, and hence the mean of the two readings is correct. This illustrates how 30″ may appear in a reading though the smallest space on the vernier is *called* a minute. In a great deal of work it is not worth while to take account of seconds in a case like this,—simply read to either whole minute.

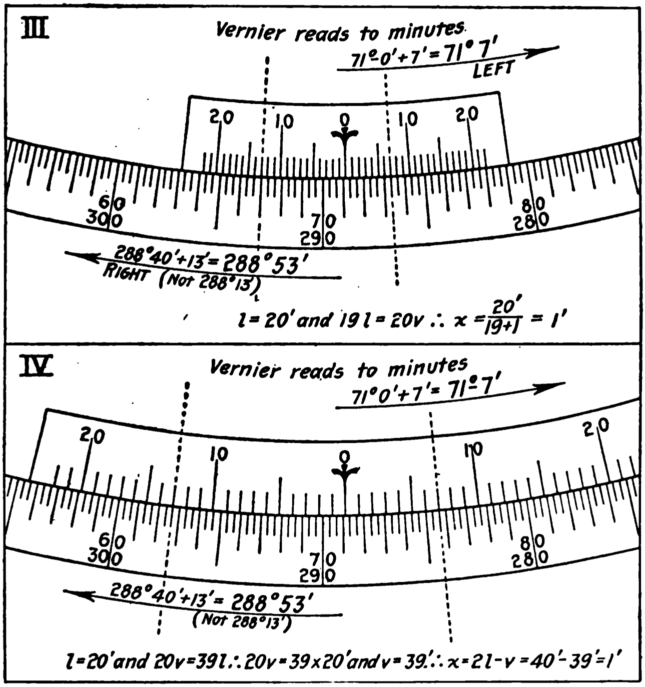


Fig. 103.

103. II. and IV. Verniers Reading to Minutes. (*a*) The chief advantage of the form of vernier in III as compared with that in the preceding illustration is that it is shorter, and may therefore be used in a small space, as, for example, when set between the standards to go with the vertical circle.

(*b*) In Illustration IV the vernier is constructed like that on p. 80 except that every alternate mark on the vernier is omitted. Each division on the vernier is called *one* minute, but it is really 39′ long or 1′ short of two spaces on the limb. The advantage of this construction is that the division-marks on the vernier itself are farther apart than those in I, II, and III, and hence are easier to read. Though this is an excellent form of vernier it is not as common a one as that on p. 78.

The mistaken readings in both III and IV are due to dropping the minutes from the original limb reading.

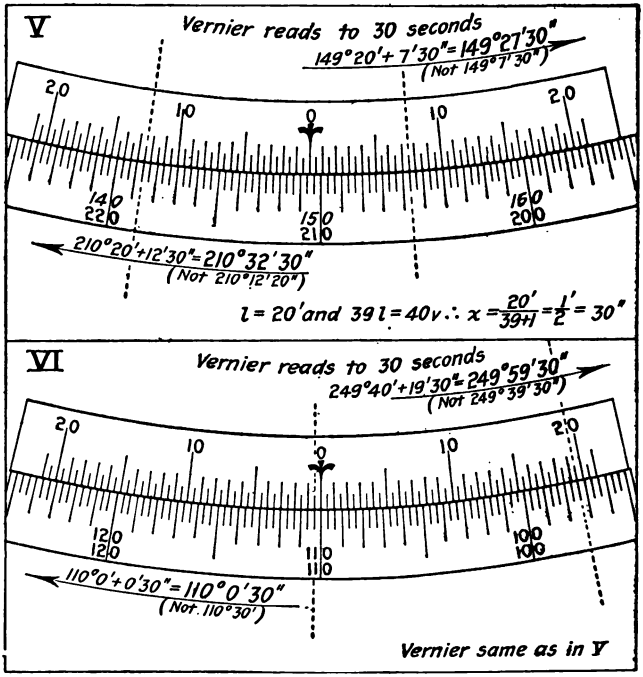


FIG. 104.

104. V. and VI. Verniers Reading to 30 Seconds. The limb is graduated exactly like the limb in III and IV, but the vernier is more finely graduated, each of the small divisions being called 30″.

Both of the mistakes in V are due to dropping 20′ from the original limb reading. Notice also in the reading 210° 12′ 20″ the mistake of calling the smallest division on the vernier 20″ instead of 30″. This is a natural mistake, since the smallest division on the limb is 20′. The mistake of 249° 39′ 30″ was also due to dropping 20′ because of the impression that the limb reading was 249° 20′ instead of 249° 40′.

The mistake of 110° 30′ instead of 110° 0′ 30″ came from adding the vernier reading as if it were 30′ instead of 30″.

The fact that 20″ and 20′, the smallest divisions on the vernier and the limb respectively, are unequal numerically leads to confusion as indicated above, and makes this form much less desirable than that on p. 81.

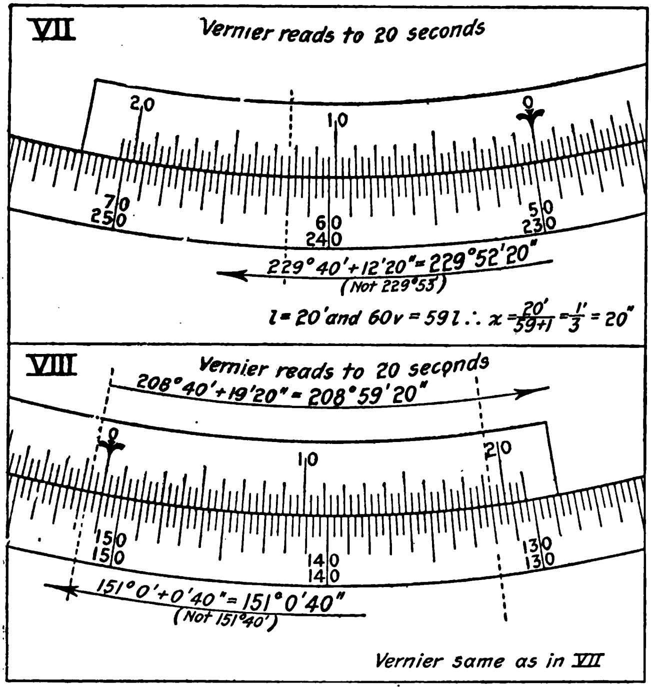


Fig. 105.

105. VII. and VIII. Verniers Reading to 20 Seconds. This form of vernier, in which the smallest space is called 20″, is used for city work, simple triangulation, and other work of high accuracy.

The mistake of 229° 53′ instead of 229° 52′ 20″ came from observing the 12′ mark on the vernier and then counting the next space as if it were a whole minute instead of 20″, thus getting 13′ to add to the limb reading instead of 12′ 20″.

The mistake of 151° 40′ instead of 151° 0′ 40″ came from calling the vernier reading 40′ instead of 40″. This would probably not have occurred had the vernier reading been a full minute or more.

Question. Keeping the graduations on the limb the same, how could the vernier be changed so that its least count would be 10″?

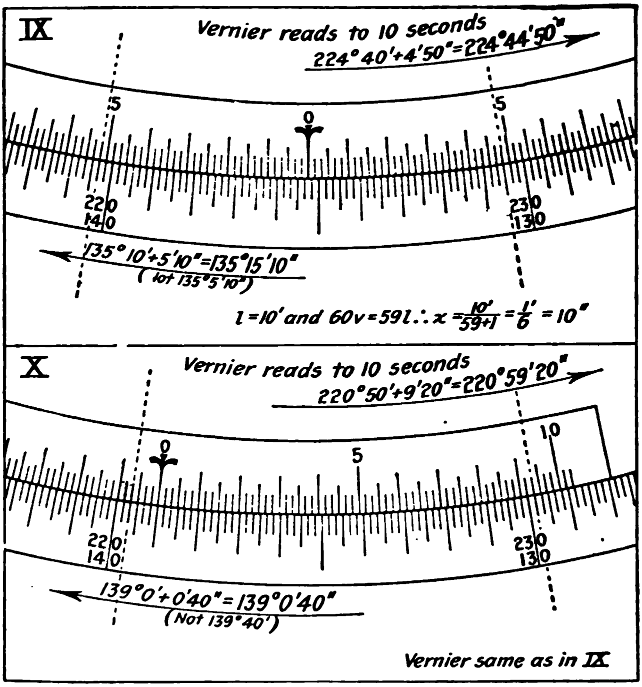


FIG. 106.

106. IX. and X. Verniers Reading to 10 Seconds. This form of vernier, in which the smallest space is called 10″, is for extremely accurate work, and is seldom found except on sextants and on high-grade instruments. On a vernier like this, several marks may appear to coincide with marks on the limb. Take the middle one.

The mistake of 135° 5′ 10″ instead of 135° 15′ 10″ came from dropping the 10′ from the original limb reading.

The mistake of 139° 40′ instead of 139° 0′ 40″ came from calling the vernier reading 40′ instead of 40″—a mistake most likely to occur when the vernier reading is less than one minute.

Question. What is the maximum error involved in a reading when a vernier like that in IX and X is used, assuming that no *actual* mistake is made? (See p. 77.)

107. Special Forms of Verniers. Special forms of verniers may be devised at will, as, for example, verniers reading to a *decimal* of a degree (convenient for railway curves).

(*a*) A vernier sometimes used on the sextant has 60 spaces corresponding to 119 on the graduated arc. This makes each space on the vernier a little less than two spaces on the arc. It is used as a direct vernier. (If the smallest division on the graduated arc is 20′, prove that the vernier reads to 20″.)

(*b*) *Retrograde* verniers are seldom used on transits.* A special form of retrograde vernier is used when it is desired to economize space, as, for example, in the compass-box for setting off the declination.† Thirty spaces on the vernier correspond to 31 on the limb, the vernier reading to minutes. There are two rows of numerals on the vernier arranged as follows:

	20	25	30	25	20	
15	10	5	0	5	10	15

The usual rules for reading do not hold good. Thus, if the indicator is to the *right* of the zero, read the lower figures on the *left*-hand vernier, unless the reading is over 15′, and then the upper figures on the right-hand vernier are used. If the indicator is to the left of the zero, read lower right-hand figures for less than 15′, upper left-hand for more than 15′. (See from the figure that this must be so.) Note that this vernier is only half as long as the ordinary double vernier, and that the lower left-hand and the upper right-hand verniers form one vernier and *vice versa*.†

108. Summary. For a summary of this chapter see Arts. 131, 132, pp. 96–97.

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* Verniers in which the smallest space is larger than the corresponding smallest space on the limb.

† A similar "folded" vernier is often used for setting declinations which is direct instead of retrograde, 30 spaces on the vernier corresponding to 29 half-degrees on the limb.

CHAPTER IX

USE OF THE TRANSIT

THE only way to learn to use the transit is to practice with it in the field, but many suggestions and directions may be given which will help to make that practice intelligent and effective. After a preliminary reading, this chapter will best serve its purpose if the different articles are consulted *at the time that corresponding work with the transit is being done* in the field. Study, first, *methods* of work, and then consult the chapter frequently, thus gradually acquiring *habits* of work. It may be added that directions often seem trivial to the beginner which are nevertheless well worth following when learning to use such an important instrument as the transit.

The chapter on *The Transit*, Part III, shows how the instrument is constructed, and explains the workings of its most important parts. The care and adjustment of the transit is also treated in Part III.

109. Caution. First of all, treat the transit kindly. Remember, many of the parts are of soft metal. Never force a screw—all screws should work easily; if they do not, there is some trouble which brute force will not help. The diameter of the head of a thumb-screw often gives a leverage out of all proportion to the strength of the screw, and it is comparatively easy to strip the thread. Beginners too often feel that clamps should be set as tight as possible, with the result that each time they have to be set a little tighter and soon become useless. The condition of the clamps on comparatively new school instruments should be a lasting object lesson. If the object-glass slide in the telescope moves hard, probably dust or grit is inside, and it will not take a very strong man either to destroy the rack and pinion, or to cut deep scratches and grooves along the surface of the slide. *Rubbing* dust from the object-glass with the handkerchief may get the dust off, but it often leaves scratches on. Blow it off or brush gently.

Do not let a transit stand with the tripod legs so close together that it is easily upset; on the other hand, if the legs are too far apart they may open out and let the transit down; this is specially likely to happen on a smooth floor. Be sure that the head of the transit is firmly screwed on its tripod.

Before taking the transit up to carry it from one place to another do three things: (1) Loosen the lower clamp so that both plates will turn freely if accidentally hit; (2) Point the telescope straight up, leaving it free to turn on its supporting axis at the slightest knock; (3) See that the needle is lifted so that the delicate point of its pivot will not be injured. As a urther precaution do not carry the transit on the shoulder when going through a doorway or through any other place where it is likely to get bumped. Carry it under the arm.

110. Plumb-bob. Do not begin the day's work by leaving the plumb-bob behind. The string to the bob is looped over a hook under the center of the transit, and has a sliding knot by which to adjust its length. The figure shows the sliding knot before it is drawn tight. But instead of putting the end of the string through the loop as shown n the figure, double it back upon itself so that the knot may be untied at any time by simply pulling the free end, as in the case of a bow-knot. Avoid any other knot in the string, even one at he end.

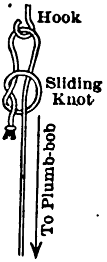

FIG. 110.

Another device is to fasten one end of the string o a piece of wood containing two holes, while the other end of the loop passes through the holes and down to the plumb-bob. Friction and the crook in the string hold the device in any position as it slides up or down the plumb-line. Bone or leather may be used in place of the wood.* If the wind is blowing, shield the bob with something (a hat will do) to keep it from swinging.

111. Using the Telescope. (See also the chapter in Part III on *The Telescope*). Point the telescope toward the sky and move the eyepiece in or out until the cross-hairs are clearly visible. On some instruments the eyepiece is moved by screwng or twisting it, while in others a focusing-screw with rack and pinion is used. Once the eyepiece is adjusted to the eye of he transitman, it is not necessary to disturb it again. (See *Parallax*, Part III.)

2. To get the line of sight on an object quickly, sight along he top of the telescope before sighting through it.

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* See Eng. News., Aug. 16, 1900, or Baker's Surveying Instruments, p. 35.

3. In focusing, remember that the nearer the object the farther out the object-glass must be run. "Near-far and far-near."

4. Do not use the upper or lower part of the vertical cross-hair for sighting when its intersection with the horizontal hair can be used just as well. The vertical hair may not be truly vertical.

5. In sighting on a pole, sight as far down as possible (at the very bottom if that can be seen), for the pole may not be held exactly plumb.

6. If the telescope has stadia-wires, do not mistake either of them for the regular horizontal hair.

7. Do not take hold of the telescope itself to move it sidewise; form the habit of turning it by taking hold of the plate on which the standards rest.

8. If the telescope is used in the dark, the cross-hairs must be illumined by reflecting light down the barrel of the telescope. Mining transits are furnished with a device for this purpose. (See also observation on Polaris.)

112. Transiting, Plunging, or Reversing the Telescope. Synonymous terms for turning the telescope completely over on its supporting axis, thus bringing it upside down, and making it point in exactly the opposite direction from what it did before. The upper and lower plate clamps are set so that the telescope cannot move sideways while it is being reversed.

113. Setting up the Transit. The transitman aims at two things in setting up a transit. viz.: (1) He must center it over some given point; (2) He must "level up," i.e., make the graduated plate horizontal. The given point is usually a stake driven into the ground, the head of a tack or nail marking the exact point on the stake. The tripod, plumb-bob, and shifting-head are used to "center" the transit, the thumb-screws and plate-levels to "level up." The process may be outlined as follows:

1. Set the tripod, with shoes pressed firmly into the ground, in such a position that, when its head is *approximately level* (judged by the eye), the plumb-bob will come to rest *nearly* over the point (tack). (See suggestion 5, Art. 114.)

2. Loosen two *adjacent* thumb-screws, and, using the shifting-head, bring the point of the plumb-bob over the required point (center of tack-head). Use the sliding device on the

plumb-bob string, if necessary, so that the point of the bob just clears the stake.

3. Tighten the two thumb-screws (previously loosened for shifting), and by means of all four screws level up.

4. See that the plumb-bob still hangs over the center of the tack when the plates are level. If in "leveling up" it has been disturbed, bring it back to the center by using the shifting-head and level up again.

Speed in setting up a transit is worth a great deal, for a slow transitman can delay the work of a whole party. Moreover, setting up over a railway track "between trains" often means quick work. It is true that the knack of setting up a transit comes from practice, but make it *intelligent* practice from the start. Consult the next article frequently and practice until the methods suggested become second nature.

114. Suggestions for Setting Up a Transit.

(1) The clamps in the upper part of the tripod should be adjusted so that they are just tight enough for friction to hold the legs in any position.

(2) Spread the tripod legs just far enough to bring the telescope at a convenient height: it saves stretching up or stooping down.

(3) Manipulate the tripod so that its head is approximately level to begin with. The less the thumb-screws are used the better: saves wear, saves time. On level ground set the shoes about equal distances from the tack. On a slope place *two* legs on the down-hill side.

(4) If the tripod head is too much out of level, the thumb-screws in "leveling up" will bind; do not force them; start over again by moving the legs of the tripod so as to make the head level.

(5) *A most important suggestion.* Set up the transit at first within a foot or two of the station without any attempt to bring the bob over the tack, the main object being to get the plates *approximately* level, as judged by the eye, and the telescope at a convenient height, with the tripod shoes merely resting on the ground. This having been accomplished in two or three quick movements, lift all three shoes off the ground and move the transit bodily until the bob is over the tack, push the legs into the ground and proceed to use the shifting-head and leveling-screws as already explained.

Remark. It seems difficult to convince students that the preliminary setting up to one side of the station is not a waste of time. If done correctly, however, it takes but a few seconds, and a fair trial will show that it actually saves time, especially on a side hill. As the transit is taken off the shoulder, set it down with one leg up hill, take the other two legs, one in either *hand, and bring it* to position, then move it bodily over the *station.*

(6) *Three important suggestions for manipulating the tripod.* When the bob is within a few inches of the tack, but too far away to be brought over it with the shifting-head, the legs of the tripod must be moved slightly. Keep in mind these three suggestions:

(*a*) If the plumb-bob is off the tack, but the plates are nearly level, move a tripod leg on its own pivot towards or away from the tack. (Changes the position of the bob, but does not throw the plates greatly out of level. This is the condition most often met with.)

(*b*) If the bob is over the tack, but the plates are out of level, swing a tripod leg right or left without moving it on its own pivot. (Tends to level the plates without changing the position of the bob.)

(*c*) If the bob is only a little off the tack, first get it "on line" with one leg and the tack, and then bring it over the tack by moving that leg thus: If bob is at *a*, Fig. 114 (*c*), bring it to *b*, or to *c* by moving legs *d* and *e*, and then bring it over the tack by moving leg *f*, or by moving both legs *d* and *e*.

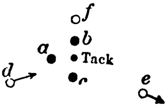

Fig. 114 (*c*).

(7) The tripod must stand firmly. On soft ground push the legs well in, but not as if they were to stay for all time. Pushing against a leg crosswise is a waste of strength and may break it by bending; push lengthwise. On hard, smooth surfaces, such as floors and pavements, put the shoe-points, if possible, in cracks or small holes, to prevent slipping.

(8) Avoid setting a tripod leg "on line" where it might interfere with stretching the tape in chaining between stations.

(9) If the wind is blowing, kneel on the windward side of the plumb-bob and shield it with the body or with a hat.

Suggestions for using the thumb-screws in leveling up.

(10) Two *diagonally opposite* screws are worked at the same time, first one pair, then the other, alternating until the plates are level. The thumbs always move toward or away from each other. The knowledge of which way to turn the screws should soon become instinctive. It may be helpful, however, to remember *that the bubble will move in the direction in which the left thumb is turned.*

(11) If there is only one plate-level, it is placed parallel to *the first* pair of thumb-screws used, and then parallel to the

other pair. If there are two plate-levels, each is placed parallel to a pair of diagonally opposite screws.

(12) Keep all four thumb-screws bearing evenly and firmly. If one of a pair is turned faster than the other, it will either bind or be raised off the bearing plate; stop turning this screw until the other catches up. If all are turning hard, the tripod head is too much out of level, or one pair has been forced, or possibly the screw-threads need cleaning. Consult an instructor.

Remark. The leveling-screws should turn so easily that they may be *rolled* between the palms of the hands. This is quicker than turning them with the fingers.

(13) After leveling up, take hold of the graduated plate and see if it is firm; if it rocks, one or more of the thumb-screws is not bearing properly.

(14) In setting up to prolong a straight line, it is well to have one pair of diagonally opposite thumb-screws in the line, the other pair at right angles to it.

(15) In precise work, especially where the transit is to be used for leveling, it is better to be guided by the level attached to the telescope, as this is more sensitive than the plate-levels. The latter may be used until the plates are approximately level. The telescope is then clamped in a horizontal position, and brought first over one pair of leveling-screws and then over the other, just as in setting up a level. It must be carefully noted, however, that in the case of the transit the bubble is brought half-way back to the center of its tube with the leveling-screws, and the rest of the way by moving the telescope up or down with the slow-motion screw which controls the revolution of the supporting axis.

115. Accuracy Required in Setting Up a Transit. It is not always necessary to have the bob exactly over the tack or the plates exactly level. Like all surveying operations, "setting up" demands care in proportion to the results required.

If angles are being read to the nearest minute, and points sighted at are from 50 to 100 feet away, the point of the bob can be from ¼ to ½ in. from the center of the tack without seriously affecting results. (See the next chapter.) An experienced transitman, however, should be able to bring the bob to within less than a quarter of an inch of the point without special effort or waste of time.

In leveling up, the following points should be remembered:

1. In measuring the horizontal angle between two points about on the same level, the plates need be only approximately level. (They can often be leveled by the eye alone.)

2. In measuring the horizontal angle between a high and a low point, more care should be taken in leveling up—especially should the bubble be in the center of that tube which is at right angles to the telescope.

3. In measuring the vertical angle between points in the same vertical plane, it is only that plate-level parallel to the telescope which requires special attention.

The student will be well paid if he will experiment for himself along the lines suggested by this article.

Errors caused by poor setting up are: (1) From not getting the center over the tack; (2) From not getting the plates level. Errors from these sources are as a rule comparatively small.

116. Backsight—Foresight. A transit stands at B. It is desired to measure the angles ABC and ABD, and to produce the line AB to E. In measuring either angle or in producing the line, if the point A is the first point sighted at, then AB is called the backsight, while the sights on C, E, and D are called foresights. An indefinite number of sights to other points (all foresights) could be taken, the angles to which could all be measured from AB as a backsight. A backsight is a point of reference (or more strictly a line of reference from the transit to some other point); from it angles are measured to lines (foresights) to other points. If the angle is 180°, the line of backsight is simply produced. A backsight is usually the first sight taken after the transit is set up, and ordinarily only one backsight is used no matter how many foresights may be needed.

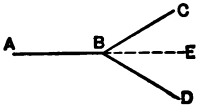

FIG. 116.

Note. The terms backsight and foresight are unfortunate in that they imply direction: they have nothing to do with direction. Thus, if only the angle ABC were to be measured, one might sight on C first, in which case CB would be the backsight.

(1) *In this book when three letters or numbers are used to denote an angle the* MIDDLE *letter or number represents the* VERTEX *of the angle (i e., where the transit stood when the angle was measured). Unless otherwise stated it may be assumed also that the* FIRST *letter or number represents the* BACKSIGHT *and the* THIRD *letter or number the* FORESIGHT.

Illustration. If $XYZ = 40°$, Y is the vertex, X the backsight, and Z the foresight.

117. Permanent Backsight. A backsight is usually taken on a pole or pencil held by one of the party. It is often desirable to establish a *permanent backsight* so that the transitman can sight to it whenever he desires without keeping a man there to give the sight. When the line of sight is set on the backsight for the first time, before unclamping, move the telescope up or down. Usually the line of sight will strike some object definite and prominent enough to use as a backsight in place of the other, thus allowing the flagman to be called in. A crack in the fence, a mark on a tree, some definite corner of a house, or something similar, can be used, but if none is readily found, it often pays to have a flagman *make* a "permanent backsight" by sticking in a flagpole or a chain-pin, or by making some mark that can be easily distinguished through the telescope.

118. Permanent Foresight. When, as is often the case, a number of points are to be "lined in" with some point ahead, it is an excellent plan to establish a *permanent foresight* as far ahead as practicable, so that if the line of sight gets off the point the transitman will notice it and bring the line in again.

119. Use of the Upper and Lower Clamp.

The *lower clamp* and corresponding slow-motion screw are used in getting a *backsight; these must never be disturbed while taking a foresight.*

The *upper clamp* and tangent-screw are used in setting the indicator at zero and in getting a foresight.

(*a*) *Note.* The importance of keeping the above in mind is readily seen. If, *after* taking a backsight, the transitman *will keep his hands off the lower part of the transit,* he will avoid the danger of disturbing his backsight. When in doubt, turn the upper screw—that can do little harm. Disturbing the backsight may mean beginning all over again. *Note that a tangent-screw will not work until the corresponding clamp is set.* Errors often arise from *thinking* clamps are set when they are not, or from clamps slipping. Clamps should not be forced, but they must be set tight enough to hold. After setting on the backsight, it is well to try turning the upper plate *gently,* as a test before beginning to take angles. If the cross-hairs move off the point and do not return, the clamp must be tightened.

120. Lining in, or Sighting in Line. Be sure the line of sight is on the desired point and all clamps set. Look along the top of the telescope and motion the flagman approximately into line, then look through the telescope and, sighting at the point of the rod if possible, signal into line. (Make the signal correspond to the distance the rod must be moved: a vigorous motion means to move it quite a distance, a slight motion means a short distance). For sights three hundred feet or less, a lead-pencil is often used instead of a rod. Do not split hairs in lining in the chainman. (See Art. 63, p. 41.)

In setting the stake for a transit station, first line the stake in and, if possible, watch it as it is being driven; make the axeman drive it so that its middle is about on line, and then set the tack with exactness, using a pencil to sight on when possible.

121. Reversing in Azimuth and Altitude, or Double Reverse. A technical term for the following process: A transit stands at *T*. Clamp the upper and lower plates together at the start and do not unclamp during the process. This means that *no angles are read*, and no use whatever is made of the vernier,—it is not necessary even to set it at zero.

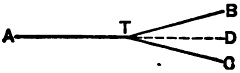

Fig. 121.

(1) Backsight on *A*. (Using the lower clamp and tangent screw.)

(2) Plunge the telescope. If the transit is in adjustment, the line of sight will strike some point in the line *AT* produced, as, for example, the point *D*; if, however, it is out of adjustment, it will strike some other point, as *B*.

(3) Let the telescope remain bottom side up, unclamp the lower screw, turn the two plates together until the telescope (still bottom side up) again points at the backsight on *A*. Clamp the *lower* clamp and bring the cross-hairs exactly on *A* with *lower* tangent-screw.

(4) Plunge the telescope. (The telescope now becomes right side up.) If the transit is in adjustment, the line of sight will again strike the point *D*, but if it is out of adjustment, the line of sight will strike a point *C* which is as far on one side of *TD* as *B* is on the other side. In practice, unless the instrument is badly out of adjustment, the points *B* and *C* are usually within an inch or so of each other, and the true point *D*, halfway between *B* and *C*, is easily established by measurement.

Note. No use is made of the graduations on the lower plate, thus eliminating error from incorrect graduation or from not setting the vernier at exactly 180°. Notice also that either the upper or the lower clamp can be used, provided both are tight when the telescope is plunged. It is better, however, *to set the upper clamp once for all before taking the first backsight and then leave it alone.* If, in setting up the transit, hint (14), page 89, is followed, the error due to the plate-level being out of adjustment may be eliminated by leveling for the bubble in that tube at right angles to the line, just before each backsight is taken. Do not take hold of the telescope to turn it around horizontally.

122. Prolonging a Straight Line. (Four methods.)

1. Set up at one end, sight at the other end and line in.

2. Set up at one end, backsight on the other end and, plunging the telescope, line in.

3. *If not* sure that the transit is in adjustment, use the

method of double reverse. In important work this method should be used as a precaution whether the transit is in adjustment or not.

4. Balance in the transit on any point in the line produced (see Art. 124), and set other points as desired.

123. Double Centering. A term sometimes used to denote the third method in the preceding article of finding a point on a line prolonged.

124. Balancing In. Getting the transit on line with two points, when the point at which the transit is to stand has not been previously established. This is done by trial. When neither of the given points can be seen from the other and the transit stands between them, the work is more difficult. The method pursued is given on p. 201.

125. Measuring Horizontal Angles. In measuring an angle keep in mind that the lower part of the instrument is a protractor, and the upper part merely a pointer with the zero mark of the vernier for an indicator. The outline of the actual work done in measuring an angle, as *ACB*, is:

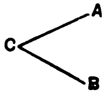

FIG. 12.

(1) Set up at *C*.

(2) With upper and lower clamps loose, revolve both plates until the zero on the vernier coincides as nearly as may be with the zero on the limb. Set the upper clamp and with the corresponding tangent-screw make the zeroes exactly coincide. (This is called setting the vernier at zero.) Observe the marks each side of the zero.

(3) Backsight at *A*. When the line of sight is nearly on *A* set the lower clamp and make it exactly strike *A* with the corresponding tangent-screw (lower).

(4) Loosen the upper clamp, turn the upper plate until the line of sight is nearly on *B*, set the upper clamp and make the line of sight exactly strike *B* with the upper tangent-screw.

(5) Read the angle.

Using the wrong clamp or tangent-screw is a frequent source of error. See Art. 119 (*a*), p. 91. Notice which is used for each operation, viz.:

Setting the vernier (2).	Upper clamp and tangent-screw.
Backsighting on *A* (3).	Lower clamp and tangent-screw.
Foresighting on *B* (4).	Upper clamp and tangent-screw.

It will help matters to remember that in measuring angles the only use made of the lower clamp and lower tangent-screw is in *backsighting*, and that the upper clamp and the upper tangent-screw are used for everything else, including *setting the vernier and foresighting. The upper clamp or tangent-screw must never be disturbed when backsighting, and the lower clamp or tangent-screw must never be disturbed when foresighting.*

For a more accurate method of measuring angles (by repetition) see Art. 138, p. 99.

126. Angles Taken to the Right or Left. Any angle as BCA has two values, one measured clockwise, the other counterclockwise. If measured clockwise, it is said to be taken to the right; if measured counterclockwise, it is taken to the left. The difference lies wholly in *the direction in which* the angle is read; it makes no difference whatever in which direction the telescope is turned when moved from the backsight to the foresight. This will be clear if the methods of reading right and left angles as explained in the preceding chapter are understood. In ordinary surveying it is better on the whole to take all angles to the right, but in some lines of work it is more convenient to take them right or left. Keep in mind that, except for deflection angles, 360° minus an angle to the right equals the corresponding angle to the left and *vice versa.*

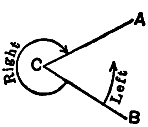

FIG. 126.

127. Taking a Number of Angles from the same Backsight.

1. Set the vernier at zero. (Upper clamp and tangent-screw.)
2. Backsight on A. (Lower clamp and tangent-screw.)
3. Foresight on B. (Upper clamp and tangent-screw.) Read the angle.
4. Foresight on C. (Upper clamp and tangent-screw.) Read the angle.
5. Foresight on D. (Upper clamp and tangent-screw.) Read the angle.

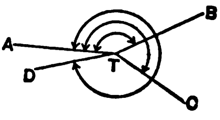

FIG. 127.

Thus any number of angles may be taken from A as a backsight. Note again that the lower clamp and corresponding tangent-screw are *not to be disturbed* after the backsight is taken.

128. Setting the Vernier. Setting the vernier at zero is *merely a matter* of convenience. In some cases it is better to set it at random, read it before and after measuring the angle, and take the difference of the two readings.

Illustration. The vernier is set at 30° 10′ before backsighting. The reading from the foresight is 70° 21′. The value of the angle is: 70° 21′ − 30° 10′ = 40° 11′.

129. Suggestions for Measuring Horizontal Angles.

1. Remember that the telescope cannot be turned right or left without turning the upper plate with it.

2. If there are two verniers, it is sufficient in ordinary work to use only one, and that should be the one which is more nearly under the eyepiece of the telescope. (Saves walking around the transit.) The other vernier across the circle should not be used at all except in special cases. Avoid the mistake of using first one and then the other indiscriminately, or getting the two confused.

3. Form the habit of estimating by eye whether an angle is between 90° and 180°, or between 180° and 270°. This is one of the best hints that can be given, and if the beginner will check his readings in this way he will save himself absurd mistakes of an even 90° or an even 180° due to reading the wrong vernier or the wrong number on the limb. (See p. 71, Art. 94 (*b*).)

4. After the backsight is taken see that all clamps are tight and that the vernier is set exactly at zero before loosening the upper clamp to take angles, but *don't force the clamp.* To make sure, test the lower clamp by trying *gently* to turn the plate. If the cross-hairs move slightly off of the backsight but come back again when the hands are removed from the plate, the clamps are tight.

5. Do not rest the hands on the tripod or upon any other part of the instrument.

6. In taking a large number of angles from the same backsight a good transitman will find time, every few angles, to sight on his "permanent backsight" to make sure that the lower part of the transit has not been disturbed. After taking a set of angles always do this the last thing before leaving the station.

7. In taking a number of angles from the same backsight, it is not necessary to set the upper clamp each time if the tangent-screw is not used. Where angles have to be read rapidly and to the nearest minute or two, it is better not to use the upper clamp at all.

8. If a number of angles are taken from the same backsight, and if, as is often the case, one is more important than the others, aim to take the important one first as soon as possible after backsighting, to avoid the error from slight disturbances of the transit.

9. In taking angles to the right it is not necessary to turn the telescope to the right. Turn it through the shorter arc.

10. Follow the suggestions for using the vernier and reading angles given in Art. 131.

130. Sources of Error in Measuring Horizontal Angles.

If the transit is in good working order, well adjusted and no parts loose, the most common sources of error are:

1. Careless setting up,—not over the tack, or plates not level, or legs not firm.
2. The slipping of a clamp when it is supposed to be tight.
3. Rough or careless handling of the instrument.
4. Careless sighting,—intersection of cross-hairs not used, or sighting at the top instead of the bottom of the rod.
5. Instrument disturbed or jarred out of position by walking around it, by passing teams or cars; vibration of telescope in strong wind.
6. Mistakes in setting the vernier or in reading the angle.

A discussion of these errors will be found in the next chapter.

131. Suggestions for Using the Vernier and Reading Angles. (A summary of Chapter VIII.)

1. Use the upper clamp and tangent-screw for setting the vernier. Loosen *both* clamps, upper and lower, until the setting is near enough to use the tangent-screw, then tighten the upper clamp; after that remember that the upper tangent-screw cannot be turned *without disturbing the setting of the vernier.*

2. If there are two verniers, 180° apart, use the one that is nearly under the eyepiece of the telescope. Do not use the other vernier at all except in special cases.

3. Ascertain from inspection whether the center (or inner) row of numbers on the limb is to be read for angles to the right. Use this row exclusively except in work where angles are taken to the left.

4. Do not make the mistake of setting the vernier at the wrong zero. If, for example, the outer row is graduated from 0° to 360°, and the inner row is graduated by the half-circle method or by the quadrant method (see pages 73–75), one of the

zeroes on the inner row will come opposite to the 180° mark on the outer row. A common mistake is to set the vernier at this zero and then read the angle as if it had been set at the 360° mark (or corresponding zero) of the outer row. This will make an error of 180° in the angle.

5. In setting the vernier as well as in reading angles, look at two or three vernier marks rather than at a single mark.

6. Before looking at the vernier make sure that you have the limb reading correct, especially the even number of degrees. Always keep in mind the value of the smallest division on the limb and do not neglect the fraction of a degree. Estimate roughly from inspection of the limb what the vernier reading should be before looking at the vernier.

7. In a double vernier read the vernier which is in advance of the indicator.

8. In reading the vernier keep in mind the value of the smallest division, and if it is in *seconds* do not call it *minutes.* Notice if the final reading agrees with that previously estimated from the limb.

9. Finally. The order in reading an angle is: (1) Note the limb reading *carefully;* (2) Estimate the vernier reading; (3) Read the vernier; (4) Add the vernier reading to the limb reading.

132. Common Mistakes in Reading Angles. (See Chapter VIII.)

1. Setting the vernier at a zero of the inner circle, but not at the zero of the outer circle, and reading the angles thereafter from the outside circle, or *vice versa.*

2. Omitting the *fraction* of a degree in reading a limb.

3. Reading the inside circle of numbers on the limb instead of the outside circle, or *vice versa.*

4. Getting the number of degrees wrong when the limb is not numbered continuously from 0 to 360.

5. Reading the *B* vernier instead of the *A* vernier, or *vice versa.*

6. Reading the wrong side of a double vernier.

7. Calling the smallest division on a 30″, 20″, or 10″ vernier minutes instead of seconds.

8. Looking at a single vernier mark instead of at two or three.

9. Arithmetical mistakes in adding the vernier reading to the limb reading.

10. Finally: Mistakes are more likely to occur in reading the limb than in reading the vernier, and mistakes in reading the limb are the more serious. Many such mistakes may be avoided by habitually estimating angles by eye as a rough check on the reading. (See suggestion 3, p. 95.)

133. The Reading-glass. A small magnifying-glass is used for reading the vernier; one about an inch in diameter is a good size. Steady the glass by resting the hand on the plate near the vernier, and bring the glass slowly toward the eye until the best results in clearness and magnification are obtained. In bright sunlight a good way is to use both hands, one resting on either side of the vernier, with the reading-glass supported between them. This effectively shades the vernier.

134. Taking Angles from the Backsight Prolonged. In some classes of work, especially in railroad work and in surveys which continue more or less in a straight line, it is more convenient after backsighting to plunge the telescope and take angles right or left. Thus in Fig. 134, backsight on A, plunge the telescope and measure an angle CTD to the right or CTB to the left. Such angles are called *deflection angles.* (See p. 120.) *Deflection angles are never greater than 180°.*

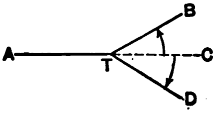

FIG. 134.

135. Vertical Angles. (*a*) *With the horizontal.* If necessary, first adjust the vertical arc so that it is at zero when the line of sight is level (as shown by the level-bulb attached to the telescope). Sight approximately at the point, set the clamp that controls the movement of the telescope in the vertical plane, and use the corresponding tangent-screw to bring the line of sight exactly on the point. Read the vertical arc.

Caution. On some transits the vertical arc is fastened to the supporting axis by a clamp, and when this clamp-screw is loose the axis may turn without taking the vertical arc with it. Be constantly on guard when measuring vertical angles with such an instrument, to make sure that the reading is zero when the bubble is at the center of its tube.

If neither the vertical arc nor the corresponding vernier is adjustable, note the reading when the line of sight is horizontal. This reading, sometimes called an *index error,* must then be applied *with its proper algebraic sign* to all readings, just as if the vertical angle were taken between *any two* points, as explained in the next paragraph.

(*b*) *Vertical angle between two points.* Sight first at one point, note the reading on the vertical arc, then sight at the other and note that reading. Use the clamp and tangent-screw attached *to the supporting* axis. Inspection of the vertical circle will make it obvious whether to add or to subtract the readings. If both sights are above or below the horizontal, subtract; if one is above and the other below, add. It is not usually necessary in surveying to measure vertical angles with the same precision required for horizontal angles.

136. To Turn off a Horizontal Angle. The reverse of measuring an angle. Set the vernier at zero and clamp the plates together (upper clamp). Backsight and set the lower clamp. Loosen the upper clamp and set the vernier at the angle to be laid off. Set the upper clamp, "line in" the pole, stake, tack, or whatever is used to mark the desired point.

Note. Notice that, as in measuring angles, the lower clamp is only used for backsighting. The most common angle to lay off is 90° for foundations of structures, for rectangular pieces of land, for triangulation, and for many other purposes. For a more accurate method (by repetition) see Art 142.

137. To Measure Horizontal Angles with Great Accuracy. Errors in adjustment must be eliminated and the angle read to as small a fraction of arc as the instrument will allow. As most transits are more or less out of adjustment, and as the ordinary transit reads to minutes or possibly half-minutes, the method of Art. 125, depending on a single reading, will not give the best results. One of the two methods—by repetition or by series—may be used where greater accuracy is required. Both methods depend upon multiplying the number of the observations.

138. Measuring Angles by Repetition. To measure an angle by repetition means to measure it two or more times, allowing the vernier to remain clamped each time at the previous reading instead of setting it back at zero when sighting at the backsight.

(*a*) Measure the angle once in the usual manner, note the reading (merely as a check), and *let the two plates remain clamped at the reading.* Backsight again and measure the angle a second time in the same direction as before. The reading should now be double the real value of the angle.

(*b*) *Illustration.* Transit at *C*, backsight at *A*. Measure *ACB*; suppose vernier reads 30° 1′. Allow vernier to remain clamped at 30° 1′, backsight at *A*, and measure the angle again. The vernier will now read 60° 2′, which divided by 2 gives the value as before, 30° 1′. But suppose instead of 60° 2′ it reads 60° 3′. This would indicate that the angle is 30° 1′ 30″. But if the transit reads to minutes, this result could not have been obtained from a single observation without estimating the 30″. By letting the vernier remain at 60° 3′ and measuring for a third time, if the reading should be 90° 4′ the value would be 30° 1′ 20″. Thus on a transit reading to minutes results may be obtained to 30″ by doubling an angle, and to 20″ by tripling it.

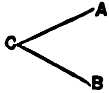

FIG. 138.

(c) *Doubling* an angle is measuring an angle by the above method twice before reading, *tripling* three times, *quadrupling* four times, and so on. More than six repetitions are seldom used. Of course, a vernier may be set at random to start with instead of at zero. In running transit lines, doubling angles may be used merely as a check.

Caution. Keep in mind the rule, Art. 119: Backsight—lower: foresight—upper. In repeating an angle, turning the lower tangent-screw when foresighting, or the upper tangent-screw when backsighting, will make it necessary to start all over again.

(d) *Adding multiples of 360°.* In repeating angles it is sometimes necessary to add 360° or 720° to a reading. *First illustration.* In doubling an angle of 200° the first reading is 200°, the second reading is 40°, or 40+360=400 and 400÷2=200°. *Second illustration.* An angle of 130° is sextupled, and the final reading is 60°, or 60+360+360=780, and 780÷6=130°. The indicator on the vernier has moved twice around the graduated circle and 60° over.

(e) *Measuring deflection angles by repetition.* This involves the method of double reverse (p. 92); otherwise it does not differ from the method just explained.

(1) Measure the deflection angle in the usual way.

(2) Keep the plates clamped at the reading obtained in (1), loosen the lower clamp, and, with the telescope still bottom side up, backsight a second time as in the method of double reverse.

(3) Plunge (the telescope now becomes right side up), and again measure the deflection angle, dividing the final reading by two.

In addition to the usual advantages of doubling an angle this method eliminates errors in adjustment of the line of collimation.

130. Measuring Angles by Series. This method may be used where several angles have a common vertex. Angles are measured in succession around the horizon, and the set "closed" by sighting on the first backsight. If the vernier does not read the same as it did to start with, the error is distributed equally between the angles irrespective of size.

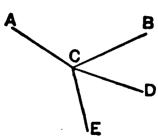

FIG. 139.

Illustration. Transit at *C*. Set vernier at random, say 20°. Backsight on *A*. Vernier reading 20°.

Foresight	Vernier Reading	Angle	Subtraction	Value
B	140° 21′	*ACB*	(140° 21′) − 20° 0′)	120° 21′
D	160° 32′	*BCD*	(160° 32′) − (140° 21′)	20° 11′
E	200° 40′	*DCE*	(200° 40′) − (160° 32′)	40° 8′
A	20° 1′	*ECA*	(380° 1′) − (200° 40′)	179° 21′
				360° 01′

Error = 20° 1′ − 20° = 1′ or 15″ to be subtracted from each angle, thus: 120° 20′ 45″ + 20° 10′ 45″ + 40° 7′ 45″ + 179° 20′ 45″ = 360° 0′ 0″. By *taking angles in combination*, as, for example, *ACD*, *BCE*, and *ACE*, *other equations of conditions* may be obtained.

140. Additional Precautions in Measuring Angles. In very accurate work, when measuring angles either by repetition or by series, one or more of the following precautions may be taken to eliminate error due to lack of adjustment, eccentricity, faulty graduation, and other instrumental errors:

1. Read both (opposite) verniers each time.
2. Take angles to the right, then to the left.
3. Take angles with the telescope normal, then with it inverted.
4. Shift the zero of the vernier along the limb so that different portions of the graduated arc may be used.

Taking angles in sets. When the above precautions are used it is necessary to take the angles in "sets." Each set, complete in itself, gives a value of the angle, and the final value is found either by taking the arithmetical mean, or by adjusting the values from equations of conditions. The latter properly belongs to higher surveying. In Chapter XVI, on *Triangulation*, more explicit directions are given for taking angles in sets.

141. Comparison of the Two Methods. The method of repetition is to be preferred for the measurement of a single angle, and for a transit with coarsely graduated circle. The method by series is used in triangulation when precise instruments with finely graduated arcs are employed. In either method the precautions of Art. 140 will theoretically eliminate instrumental error. In repeating angles the number of sights is doubled, hence the chances for errors in sighting and clamping are doubled, and the time nearly doubled. Thus this method, perfect in theory, is not so superior in practice as at first appears, and the limit of precision is ordinarily reached after a few repetitions.

142. To Lay Off an Angle by Repetition. The reverse of measuring an angle by repetition.

Illustration. Transit at *C*. Backsight at *A*. Required to lay off 30° 1′ 30″, transit reading to minutes.
Backsight at *A* with vernier set at 0°.
Foresight by setting vernier at 30° 1′, point falls at *B*.
Backsight at *A*, vernier still at 30° 1′.
Foresight by setting vernier at 60° 3′, point falls at *D*.
Required point is at *E*, half-way between *B* and *D*.

Note. The first and second points, *B* and *D*, are usually so close together that no difficulty is experienced in getting the half-way point. It may be well, however, having set the final point, to actually measure the angle by repetition in the usual way as a check. Precautions corresponding to those of Art. 140 can be taken if necessary.

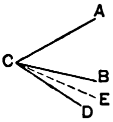

FIG. 42.

Deflection angles may be laid off in a similar manner by reversing the method of 138 (*e*).

143. Reading Bearings. (*a*) The compass-box on a transit is attached to the *upper plate*, and when the telescope is turned sidewise the compass-box must turn with it. When the telescope is right side up the letter N. is directly beneath the front end of the telescope. A line between N. and S. is always directly beneath the axis of the telescope (or line of sight) *no matter in what direction the telescope may be pointing.* When the magnetic needle is lowered to its pivot it will come to rest pointing north, and if the telescope is also pointed to the magnetic north, the north end of the needle will point to the letter N. (Fig. 143 (*a*)). If, however, the telescope is turned in some other direction, the letters N., E., S., and W. turn with it; but the needle will still point to the magnetic north, and each of its ends will usually rest *between* two of these letters. To read the bearing of a line, pay no attention to the telescope except to see whether it is normal or inverted, and do not try to think beforehand whether the bearing is going to be N.E. or S.E., S.W. or N.W. If the telescope is right side up, simply observe between which two letters the north end of the needle rests, and how many degrees it is from the letter N. or the letter S. as the case may be. The south end of the needle is observed instead of the north end when the telescope is inverted. *The north end of the needle is the end without the weight.*

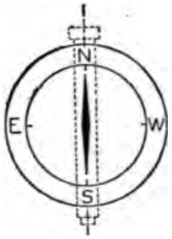

FIG. 143 (*a*).

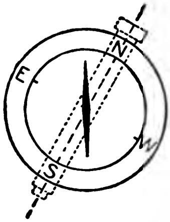

FIG. 143 (*b*).

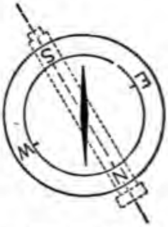

FIG. 143 (*c*).

On most transits the lett [illegible] E. and W. are interchanged, the
E. being on the left and the [illegible] the right. The reason [illegible]
this will appear from the fol [illegible] ustrations.

(*b*) *Illustration.* In Fi
N. 30° 30′ E. In readi
found between the lett
had been on the le
be, the north end
lead to the mista
(*c*) *Illustrat*
S. 30° 15′
S. toward
it would h

In transits where the E. and W. have not been interchanged one must be on guard against the mistake illustrated above of reading east for west or *vice versa.*

(*d*) *Precautions.* (1) Never read a bearing from E. or from W. The first letter is always N. or S., and the last letter is always E. or W.

(2) In recording a bearing do not omit either the first or the last letter. Of what value is a bearing recorded N. 40°, or one recorded 35° E.?

(3) In some transits a vernier will be found within the compass circle, to be used, when desired, for setting off the magnetic declination, so that when the needle points to N. the telescope will point to the *true* north instead of the magnetic north. This makes it possible to read true bearings instead of magnetic bearings. (See Art. 154.) *When reading magnetic bearings be sure that this vernier is set at zero.*

CHAPTER X

ERRORS IN ANGULAR MEASUREMENTS

THE aim in this chapter is to discuss the relative importance of the different sources of error in angular measurement, to suggest limits of error and to point out how the limits of error adopted for angular measurement should be consistent with those adopted for linear measurement.

144. Sources of Error in Measuring Angles.

1. *Instrumental errors.* (1) Errors of adjustment, and (2) errors from defects in construction which cannot be eliminated by adjustment, such, for example, as eccentricity in the graduation on the limb. (See Part III.) Methods of eliminating instrumental errors are given in Art. 140, p. 101.

2. *Mistakes in manipulating the transit.* Summarized in Art. 130, p. 96.

3. *Mistakes in reading angles.* Summarized in Art. 132, p. 97.

4. *Errors in setting up the transit.* (1) Transit not centered over the station, and (2) plates out of level.

5. *Errors in sighting.* Intersection of cross-hairs not exactly on the point sighted at.

6. *Natural sources of error.* Wind, refraction, temperature, obstacles.

145. Relative Importance of Error. In linear measurement the magnitudes of the errors from different sources are pretty well known, but in angular measurement the errors are so affected by varying conditions that they cannot be estimated in advance. Instrumental errors, mistakes in manipulating the transit, and mistakes in reading angles, for example, do not admit of much theoretical discussion. In ordinary surveying such errors can be practically eliminated, and then their relative importance does not matter. The last three sources of error mentioned in the preceding article may be briefly treated.

146. Errors in Setting up the Transit. Contrary to the general impression the error due to the plumb-bob being off the station is not so important as the error due to the plates being out of level. This is especially true in hilly ground where the telescope may be pointed up for one sight and down for another. It is to be remembered also that in measuring an angle the error from either source is greater for short sights than for long sights, while in laying off an angle the reverse is true. It does not take much if any longer for a good transitman to so set up his instrument that in ordinary work the error from either source is inappreciable. Although the plumb-bob may be as much as ½ inch off the station, the resulting error will probably not exceed one minute for 100-ft. sights, while for 1000-ft. sights it will be a small fraction of a minute. As the plumb-bob can be brought to within ⅛″ of the point without special effort and still closer if desired, it is seen that the importance of this source of error may be easily overestimated. If the limb is 6″ in diameter and one edge is $\frac{3}{16}$″ lower than the other, a maximum error of one minute of arc might result. A difference of ½″ in level might cause a maximum error of from six to seven minutes, but such a difference in level would be apparent to the eye.

147. Errors in Sighting. (*a*) The practical question here is: How much error is caused by not sighting exactly on a point? Suppose that in *measuring* an angle a line of sight which should strike a given point passes a short distance, say one inch, to one side of that point. The nearer the given point is to the transit the greater the angular error caused by this departure of one inch. On the other hand, suppose that a small error, say of one minute, is made in *laying off* an angle. The line of sight will depart farther and farther from the true line as the distance from the transit becomes greater and greater. Some idea of the magnitude of errors from these two sources may be gained from the following *approximate* values:

Length of sight in feet	Angular error for one inch or 0.08 ft.	Deviation for error of one minute
100	3 min.	0.03 ft. or ⅜ in.
300	1 min.	0.09 ft. or 1 in.
500	½ min. or 30 sec.	0.15 ft. or 1⅞ in.
1000	¼ min. or 15 sec.	0.30 ft. or 3⅝ in.
1500	⅙ min. or 10 sec.	0.45 ft. or 5⅜ in.
5000	$\frac{1}{20}$ min. or 3 sec.	1.50 ft. or 18 in.

(*b*) *Note.* It is well to fix two or three of these values in mind. For example, a point an inch out of line at 100 ft. from the transit causes an error of about 3′. This error varies very nearly *inversely* as the distance of the point from the transit, so that one minute corresponds approximately to one inch 300 ft. from the transit. Again, an error of 1′ of arc brings a point 0.3 ft. out of line 1000 ft. from the transit. This error varies *directly* as the distance of the point from the transit, so that at 500 ft. the error is half as much, or 0.15 ft.

(*c*) *Illustration.* A rod is held so that the top is one inch out of plumb. It is 100 ft. from the transit. Sighting at the top results in an angular error of 3′. Hence the importance of sighting at the bottom of the rod or, when this is impossible, of holding the rod plumb. The nearer the rod is to the transit the more need there is for accurate sighting.

(*d*) *Illustration.* The following illustration shows how much more important it is to hold the rod plumb than it is to split it exactly with the vertical hair; incidentally it emphasizes also the importance of sighting at the bottom of a rod when it is possible to do so.

If a rod one inch in diameter is held on a point 300 ft. from the transit, the maximum error due to the vertical hair not splitting the rod will not exceed half a minute of arc, provided the hair covers the rod at all. On the other hand, in sighting at the top of a rod which is, say, two inches out of plumb, the error will be four times as great, or two minutes. It is evident that it is easier to bring the vertical hair on the rod than it is to hold the latter plumb. Moreover, when all but the upper foot or two of a rod is invisible from the transit, the top may be considerably more than two inches out of plumb with a corresponding increase in error.

148. Natural Sources of Error. A high wind, a hazy atmosphere, the sun shining on the instrument, and other natural sources of error often render accurate work with the transit very difficult. For work of great precision atmospheric conditions are usually most favorable directly after sunrise.

149. Elimination of Errors. *Mistakes.* Keep in mind the "danger-points" where mistakes are likely to be made in reading angles. (Art. 132, p. 97). Form the habit of estimating angles by eye as a rough check (p. 95). Make use of other checks whenever possible, such as the check by the magnetic needle or by doubling the angle. Be sure that the line of sight is directed at the point which is supposed to be taken; do not get stations confused, and when it becomes necessary to sight at the top of a rod make sure that it is plumb.

Constant errors. One of the reasons why the measurement of angles is so satisfactory is that constant errors may be largely eliminated by taking observations in pairs. Thus, for example, plunging the telescope between two observations eliminates instrumental errors, and reading both verniers eliminates eccentricity of graduation. Other precautions are given in Art. 140, p. 101, and an illustration of the method of procedure when it is desired to measure angles with high precision is given in Chapter XVI, *Triangulation.*

Accidental errors are eliminated by adjusting values of angles, by taking the mean of several observations and by distributing the total error when several angles are related by some fixed condition (Art. 24 (*b*), p. 14).

150. The Precision of Angular Measurements may be judged in one of two ways: (1) By comparing the results of several independent measurements of the same angle, and (2) by observing how closely the values of different but *related* angles fulfill known conditions.

(*a*) *First method.* In ordinary work if an angle is important enough to check at all, it is usually doubled. (Method of repetition, p. 99.) In more important work an angle may be measured a number of times and the precision will then be indicated by the probable error (pp. 15–19). The more completely the assumptions of least squares (p. 15) are fulfilled the more nearly will the probable error represent the true error (p. 17, Art. 27 (*a*)).

(*b*) *Second method.* When the angles of a polygon are measured the *true* error of their *sum* is known (p. 119), but not the error of any one angle. The same is true of several angles having vertices at a common point, when, as in Fig. 139 (p. 100), their sum should equal 360°. When, however, the sum of two or more angles should equal a *measured* angle the *discrepancy* between the sum and the measured angle is not an error in the true sense of the word, but simply the difference between two quantities both of which contain an error (see p. 14). In all three cases errors in one angle may be compensated by errors in another angle, so that the error of the sum does not represent the actual precision of the work.

(*c*) *Illustration.* The three angles of a triangle often add up exactly to 180° when measured with a transit reading to minutes. This does not mean that no error has been made, but that the errors are exactly compensating. It is not likely that any one of the three angles can be expressed in even minutes. If, therefore, they are measured with a finely graduated transit reading to 10″, their sum is less likely to add up to 180° than if a transit reading to minutes is used, although the precision with which each angle is measured may be much greater. Thus, for example, three angles were measured with the following results:

	Transit reading to 1 minute	Transit reading to 10 seconds
1	68° 10′	68° 9′ 40″
2	79° 40′	79° 40′ 25″
3	32° 10′	32° 9′ 40″
	180° 0′	179° 59′ 45″

The error of the sum in the second set is 15″, yet the precision for each angle is probably much greater than in the first set where the error of the sum is zero. In a similar manner the angles of a triangle as determined by reading a compass to the nearest 15′ will often add up 180°, while the same angles measured with a transit fail to do so, yet the precision of the work done with the transit is probably far greater.

151. Conditions which Affect the Precision of Angular Measurements in addition to the sources of error already treated are:

(1) *Instrument used.* How well made; how finely graduated; power of telescope, sensitiveness of levels, and rigidity of tripod.

(2) *Local conditions.* Conditions affecting the setting up and the stability of the transit. Time allowed for completion of the work.

(3) *Atmospheric conditions.* Wind, haziness, temperature, and refraction.

(4) *Method* used in measuring the angle.

152. Customary Limits of Error. (*a*) Varying conditions render it difficult to state what constitutes good work with the transit. Moreover, as already pointed out on p. 44, the limits of error are largely governed by the purpose of a survey, and even in the same survey angles are not all measured with the same precision. Suppose, however, a limit of error has been fixed for chaining and it is desired that the precision of angular measurement shall correspond. The question at once arises: What is the largest permissible error for each angle? In the following table the errors in feet caused by different angular errors are given for five lengths of sights, viz., 100 ft., 500 ft., 1000 ft., 1500 ft., and 5000 ft.:

Error	**100**	**500**	**1000**	**1500**	**5000**	**Ratio**
1′	0.0291	0.1454	0.2909	0.4363	1.4544	$\frac{1}{3440}$
30″	0.0145	0.0727	0.1454	0.2182	0.7272	$\frac{1}{6880}$
20″	0.0097	0.0485	0.0970	0.1454	0.4848	$\frac{1}{10300}$
10″	0.0048	0.0242	0.0485	0.0727	0.2424	$\frac{1}{20600}$
6″	0.0029	0.0145	0.0291	0.0436	0.1454	$\frac{1}{34400}$
4″	0.0019	0.0097	0.0194	0.0291	0.0970	$\frac{1}{51600}$
2″	0.0010	0.0048	0.0097	0.0145	0.0485	$\frac{1}{103100}$

0.0104 ft = $\frac{1}{8}$ in.
0.0208 ft. = $\frac{1}{4}$ in.
0.0417 ft. = $\frac{1}{2}$ in.
0.0833 ft. = 1 in.
0.2500 ft. = 3 in.
0.4167 ft. = 5 in.

This table has two uses: (1) It gives the permissible angular error for a given ratio of precision; (2) it gives an idea of the error *in feet* at different distances from the transit caused by a given error in *minutes or seconds.*

(*b*) *Permissible angular error.* The ordinary transit reads to minutes. If an error in an angle does not exceed one minute, the ratio of precision is about $\frac{1}{3400}$. It is not difficult to keep within this limit in chaining, and in a large part of the surveyor's work greater precision is not required. A ratio of $\frac{1}{5000}$ is classed as fair work for measurements with a steel tape (p. 49). To come within this limit angles should be read to 30″ (see table), and this can easily be done with a transit reading to minutes (p. 78). For a precision of $\frac{1}{10000}$ the angles should be read to 20″, therefore a transit graduated to 20″ is preferable. For the higher limits of $\frac{1}{35000}$, $\frac{1}{50000}$, and $\frac{1}{100000}$ it is seen that angles must be read to 6″, 4″, and 2″ respectively. This requires the use of accurate instruments, finely graduated, with corresponding precautions in sighting and manipulation. Moreover, a number of independent measurements of each angle must be taken (either by repetition or by series, see pp. 99, 100), from which the probable value of the angle may be deduced.

It is evident that in any given survey the limit of error for angles and the limit of error for linear measurements should be consistent. This is too frequently overlooked, one limit being set for chaining, another for transit work. An exception to be noted is in rough chaining when corresponding angular measurements can be made with greater precision than the linear measurements without special effort or loss of time.

(*c*) *The permissible error in the position of a point,* if kept in mind, will often save unnecessary refinement in measuring angles in certain classes of work, while in other work it will emphasize the necessity for accurate measurements. This is shown in the following illustrations.

(*d*) *Illustration.* In a topographic survey it is sufficient to locate contour points within, say, a foot or two. The longest sight is, say, 400 ft. From the table the error for 1′ for a 100-ft. signt is 0.029 ft., hence for 400 ft. it is about 0.12 ft. To come within 1.5 ft. the angular error must not exceed $1.5 \div 0.12 = 12$ minutes. For sights less than 400 ft. the permissible error is still greater. As limb readings can easily be estimated to within 10′, this means that for 400-ft. sights, or less, it is not necessary to consult the vernier—an obvious saving of time.

(*e*) *Illustration.* A certain point about 500 ft. from the transit must be located within ¼″. From the table, ¼″ (or 0.0208 ft.) for 500 ft. cor-

responds to an error of a little less than 10″. This is the maximum permissible angular error.

(*f*) *Error in the sum of angles.* Since errors in angular measurements are largely compensating, when several angles are added together the total error of their sum may be expected to vary about as the square root of the number of angles. Limits of error may be indicated as in chaining (p. 45); thus $R_s = r\sqrt{N}$, where R_s is the total error of the sum, r the permissible error for one angle, and N the number of angles either in a polygon or about a point. From the following table the value of R_s in seconds can be obtained for different values of r and N:

Permissible errors in the sums of angles for different values of r

N	$r=60''$	$r=30''$	$r=20''$	$r=10''$	$r=6''$	$r=4''$	$r=2''$
3	104″	52″	35″	17″	10″	7″	3.5″
4	120″	60″	40″	20″	12″	8″	4″
6	147″	73″	49″	24″	15″	10″	5″
9	180″	90″	60″	30″	18″	12″	6″
12	208″	104″	69″	35″	21″	14″	7″
16	240″	120″	80″	40″	24″	16″	8″

In ordinary work the value of r may be taken as 30″ (see p. 109). The error which may be expected in the sum of the angles of a triangle is 52″, or about a minute. For a four-sided polygon the table gives exactly a minute, while for one of sixteen sides it is two minutes. Of course these values are not absolute,—they are for guidance only. In selecting the value of r the correlation of angular and linear measurements already discussed should be kept in mind. The tendency is to measure angles with unnecessary accuracy, and to neglect important sources of error in linear measurements.

CHAPTER XI

BEARINGS AND AZIMUTHS

Bearing and *azimuth* mean so nearly the same thing in surveying that the two terms are often confused. Each is used to designate the angle which a line makes with a north and south meridian, but there is an important distinction as to how this angle is measured. The distinction is made clear in this chapter, as is also the distinction between *forward* bearing and *back* bearing, and between *forward* azimuth and *back* azimuth.

For the method of calculating the bearing of one line from the bearing of another line when the angle between the two is known see chapter on *Calculation of Bearings*, Part II. For properties of the magnetic needle consult Part III. For the method of surveying with the compass see the chapter on *Compass Surveying*.

153. Magnetic Declination. In Part III it is explained that—

1. Except in a few localities the magnetic needle does not point to the *true* north, but to a *magnetic* north. The angle between a true north-and-south line and a magnetic north-and-south line as observed at any place is the *magnetic declination* for that place.

2. The *magnetic declination* differs for different places, and varies slightly from year to year in the same place.

3. The *agonic* line is a line passing through places where the declination is zero. In the United States it passes through the central part of South Carolina, Ohio, and Michigan.

4. For places *east* of this line the declination is *west*, and for places *west* of it the declination is *east*. This fact helps the memory in deciding whether the declination for any place is east or west.

5. Local attraction is a term used to denote any influence which prevents the needle from pointing to the magnetic north in a given locality.

154. The Bearing of a Line. If a north-and-south line passes through one end of a given line, two supplementary angles are formed; the *smaller* of these two angles is the *bearing* of the given line. Bearings are always measured from the north point or the south point so many degrees east or west, *never* from the east point or the west point so many degrees north or south.

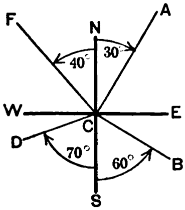

FIG. 154.

Illustration. In Fig. 154 the four possible directions in which bearings are measured are indicated by the arrows. Thus the bearing of CA is N. 30° E., *not* E. 60° N.; of CB, S. 60° E., *not* E. 30° S.; of CD, S. 70° W., *not* W. 20° S.; of CF, N. 40° W., *not* W. 50° N.

By definition a bearing can never exceed 90°. For example, a line 120° from north measured clockwise is *not* N. 120° E., but S. 60° E.

True bearing. The bearing of a line with respect to a *true* north and south meridian.

Magnetic bearing. The bearing of a line with respect to a *magnetic* north-and-south meridian. This is the bearing that is read from a compass (unless the declination arc has been turned off), and differs from the true bearing at any place by the amount of the magnetic declination at that place.

Question. Why will the true bearing of a line change if the line is prolonged far enough with the transit?

155. Forward Bearing and Back Bearing. Every line of definite length has two bearings, one for each end of the line. If the bearing of any line from one end is N.E., from the other end it will be S.W. and *vice versa*; likewise if from one end of a line the bearing is N.W., from the other end it must be S.E. This is an important distinction because it indicates direction northerly or southerly. Thus, for example, if the bearing of a line AB (Fig. 155) is given indiscriminately as either S. 30° E. or N. 30° W., one cannot tell whether B is southeast or northwest of A, but if from A to B (AB) it is S. 30° E. and from B to A (BA) it is N. 30° W., all doubt is removed. The *forward bearing* of a line is the bearing in the direction in which the survey is being run, while the *back bearing* is that

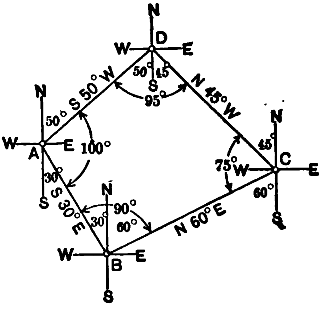

FIG. 155.

in the opposite direction. The two bearings of a line are numerically equal but with opposite letters.

Illustration. In Fig. 155, if the survey is made from *A* to *B* to *C* to *D* to *A*, the bearings as given on the figure are all *forward* bearings, but if the survey is made from *A* to *D* to *C* to *B* to *A*, the bearings as given are *back* bearings. Assuming the stations to have been occupied in the order *ABCD*, the bearing of *AB* is S. 30° E., or back bearing is N. 30° W.; *BC* is N. 60° E., or back bearing is S. 60° W.; *CD* is N. 45° W., or back bearing is S. 45° E.; *DA* is S. 50° W., or back bearing is N. 50° E.

Note. In this book when referring to the bearing of any line, that end of the line at which the bearing was read will be given first. Thus if the bearing of a line *AB* read at *A* is S. 30° E., then *AB* = S. 30° E. and *BA* = N. 30° W., i.e., the bearing of *BA* is the back bearing of *AB*.

156. Reading Bearings. The method of reading the needle in a compass is explained on page 102.

157. The Bearings Kept in a Survey are usually *all forward* bearings. It will not do to record forward bearings and back bearings indiscriminately. While it is true that one can always determine from the needle whether the forward bearing is N. or S., nevertheless one can usually do this without consulting the needle, since after working in any locality a short time the compass-points are well fixed in mind.

Note. When puzzled in the field as to whether the first letter or bearing is N. or S., imagine yourself walking along the line *in the direction in which the survey is being made*, and note whether you are going in a northerly or southerly direction; if the line should happen to be so nearly east and west that you cannot tell, then ask yourself if you are going easterly or westerly. If, for example, you know that the bearing of a line must be either N.E. or S.W., you can usually determine in this way which of the two is the *forward* bearing.

158. Calculated Bearing is the bearing of one line found by calculation from the bearing of another line, taking into account the horizontal angle formed by the two lines.

Note. The way in which calculated bearings are used in transit surveying is explained in the next chapter. The method of calculating bearings is given in the chapter on the *Calculation of Bearings*, Part II.

159. Things to Remember about Bearings—Summary.

1. The magnetic bearing differs from the true bearing by the amount of local magnetic declination.
2. Bearings are reckoned from either the north or the south points, never from the east or west.
3. Every bearing must be given by two letters. The first must be either N. or S., the second either E. or W. The omission of either letter renders the bearing of no value.
4. No bearing is over 90°.

5. Every line has two bearings, forward and back, equal numerically but with opposite letters.

6. The order in which the two ends of a line are given should indicate from which end a corresponding bearing is taken.

160. The Azimuth of a Line is the *angle* which that line makes with a *north-and-south* line as a reference-line. Azimuths are measured *clockwise* from the *north* as a starting-point. *Azimuth* differs from *bearing* in that it is measured in one direction only (clockwise) and from but one point of the compass (N.). A line the azimuth of which is anywhere between 0° and 90° is in the N.E. quadrant; between 90° and 180° in the S.E. quadrant; between 180° and 270° in the S.W. quadrant; between 270° and 360° in the N.W. quadrant. Thus in speaking of, or recording, azimuths, the compass-points N., E., S., and W., are not used, the *magnitude* of the azimuth alone indicating the direction of the line—a decided advantage.

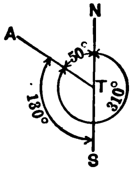

FIG. 160 (*a*).

(*a*) *Illustration.* A transit standing at *T*, Fig. 160 (*a*), is pointed at *A*. The angle *NTA* measured *clockwise* is 310°, and if *NT* is a north-and-south line, the azimuth of *TA* is 310°. If the bearing of *TA* is required, it must be from the azimuth, 360 − 310 = N. 50° W.

(*b*) The meaning of the term *azimuth* as given above is a restricted one, but it is the one to be everywhere understood in this book unless otherwise specified. Many surveyors measure azimuths from the south as a starting-point, in which case the azimuth of *TA*, Fig. 160 (*a*), would be 130° instead of 310°.

Note. The chief advantage in measuring azimuths from the north instead of from the south lies in the fact that by so doing the algebraic signs will accord with the directions to which the student is accustomed in trigonometrical computations. (See chapter on *Latitudes and Departures.*)

(*c*) *A general definition of azimuth.* The angle (measured *clockwise*) which a line makes with *any* reference-line. For example, in Fig. 160 (*c*), let *BC* be any line of reference *not* a N. and S. line. The azimuth of *TA with respect to BC* will be *BTA* if *B* is the end chosen as a starting-point, or *CTA* if *C* is the end from which azimuths are reckoned. For example, in any survey the first transit line may be used as a reference-line for all the other transit lines if so desired. The usual method, however, is to assume the *magnetic* north-and-south line as a reference-line, so that the azimuth of any line can be checked by the compass-needle.

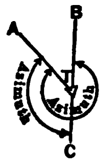

FIG. 160 (*c*).

Back azimuth. Every line of definite length has two azi- , one for each end of the line. in Fig. 160 (*d*), if the azimuth of taken at *A* it is 40°, but if taken at 220°. If the survey is being made : general direction from *A* to *B*, 0° is the azimuth and 220° the back :h.

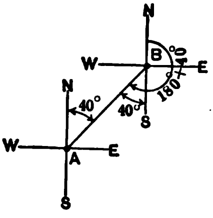

FIG. 160 (*d*).

back azimuth of a line is the azi- ɔf that line measured at its *forward* Since azimuths are measured always direction (clockwise), the back azimuth is always equal *azimuth plus 180°.* If this sum is more than 360°, sub- ;60°.

. Facts to Remember about Azimuths.

Bearings are measured from either N. or S., but *azimuths* m N. only (or from S. only).

Bearings are measured either right or left, while *azi-* are always measured to the right (clockwise).

Bearings are never over 90°, but *azimuths* are from 0° ›.

In recording a *bearing*, *two* letters (compass-points) are ›d, but in recording *azimuths no* letters are used.

The back azimuth is equal to the forward azimuth plus ɑd *vice versa.*

If desired, *any* line of reference may be used in place of ɑd S. line, but the magnetic N. and S. line is usually the ›onvenient because of the check afforded by the needle.

The term azimuth does away with all ambiguity as to ɔn, but since custom differs it should be plainly stated notes of a survey, once for all, whether azimuths are :ed from N. or from S.

CHAPTER XII

METHODS OF RUNNING TRANSIT LINES AND TRAVERSES

In this chapter four methods of running transit lines are explained. The *theory* of each method is given without entering upon the practical details of the field work. (See Chapter XIV for *field work.*) In order that the different methods may be compared, the advantages and disadvantages of each method are stated.

162. Transit Station. The point over which the transit stands when in use. (Usually a stake with a tack in it to mark the exact point.)

163. Transit Line. An imaginary straight line between two transit stations.

164. Transit Angle. Any angle measured with a transit. It must, from the way in which the transit is constructed, be either a *horizontal* angle or a *vertical* angle. (See chapter on *The Transit,* Part III.) Unless otherwise specified it is usually understood to be a horizontal angle.

165. The Transit Line a Line of Reference. Transit stations are so chosen by the surveyor that the lines between them may be used as reference-lines, by which and from which boundaries, buildings, streets, or whatever he may wish to survey are located. Methods of locating details of a survey such as these are given in the next chapter.

Transit lines, as a rule, will not be inked in on the finished map, and should be regarded merely as a means to an end.

166. Running Transit-lines. A term for establishing transit stations and locating these stations with respect to each other. The work usually consists in chaining distances between successive transit stations and in measuring the angle which each transit line makes with some other transit line, or with some reference meridian.

Note. The field work of a survey may be divided into two parts: (1) running transit lines, and (2) locating details from those transit lines. This chapter has to do with the first part only.

167. Transit-line Angle. The horizontal angle between any two transit lines that meet at a transit station. It may be either the larger or smaller angle and each of these angles may be measured clockwise or counter-clockwise; in practice, therefore, *it is not enough to note the value of an angle, but the backsight and direction in which the angle is measured must be noted also.*

Illustration. In Fig. 167 let *A*, *T*, and *B* represent the *correct* location of three transit stations, the transit standing at *T*. Suppose the notes give the angle *ATB* as 45° from a backsight on *A*, but it is not stated whether the angle is measured to the right or to the left. If the draftsman assumes that it was taken to the left, plotting 45° he will get a line *TC* instead of the line *TB*.

Again, suppose that the notes say that the angle of 45° was taken to the right, but it is not stated whether *A* or *B* is the backsight. Should the draftsman assume that *B* was the backsight, plotting 45° to the right he would get a line *TD* instead of the line *TA*.

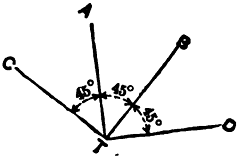

FIG. 167.

The notes, therefore, must not admit of ambiguity in respect to the backsight, or to the direction (right or left) in which an angle is taken.

168. Deflection Angle. The angle which a line makes with a transit line produced from the preceding station. Deflection angles are measured to the right or to the left, hence the *direction* should always be entered in the notes.

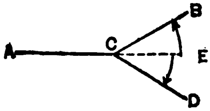

FIG. 168.

Illustration. A transit stands at *C*, Fig. 168; the backsight is at *A*; the telescope is plunged after backsighting, and then points at *E*. If turned to the right, any deflection angle, as *ECD*, may be measured to the right; if turned the other way, any deflection angle to the left may be measured, as *ECB*. When deflection angles are used at all, it is customary to measure each deflection angle to the right or to the left, according to which side of the line the point sighted at lies.

169. A System of Transit Lines. Two or more transit lines so chosen and connected as to form the basis of a survey. The transit lines are connected by the angles which they make with each other at transit stations. The distances between the stations must also be known.

Illustration. The system may form a closed polygon, as in Figs. *A* and *B*, or a series of lines which do not close, as in Figs *C* and *D*, or a network of lines, as in Fig. *E*, p. 118.

170. Traverse. A term almost synonymous with a system of transit lines, but somewhat broader and more comprehensive in its meaning. For example, "running a traverse" with a transit, a compass, or a plane table means to run out a series of connected lines, locating the stations with respect to each other by a combination of linear and angular measurements. The term may have been borrowed from navigation, where its nautical meaning is the zigzag line described by a ship when sailing on different courses. When a traverse comes back to the starting-point it is a *closed traverse.*

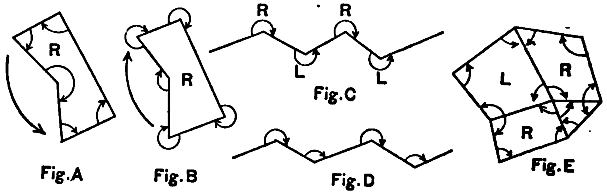

FIG. 169.

171. Triangulation. A network of connected triangles, in which the angles are measured, but not the sides. The latter are found by trigonometrical calculation, starting from some measured base-line. (See Chapter XVI.) The distinction between traverse and triangulation lies in the fact that the latter term implies the measurement of angles only.

172. The Transit-line Angles—Right or Left. Angles may be measured all to the right from a backsight on the preceding station, as in Figs. *A*, *B*, and *D*, or all to the left, as in two of the polygons in Fig. *E*, or right and left indiscriminately, as in Fig. *C*. (In Fig. 169 the direction in which the angles were measured is indicated by arrows; *R* in a polygon means that all angles in that polygon were measured to the right; *L* means that all angles were measured to the left.) For beginners, at least, it is better to measure all angles to the right.

173. Transit-line Angles—Interior and Exterior. It is usually more convenient, but by no means necessary, to measure the *interior* angles of a polygon instead of the exterior. To do this when all angles are measured to the right, go around the polygon *counter-clockwise* (leave the polygon on the left), as in Fig. *A*. The other direction (Fig *B*) gives the *exterior* angles.

174. A Survey Closes when the transit lines form a closed polygon, as in Figs. *A*, *B*, and *E*. In farm and city surveys transit lines usually close, but in railway or highway work they seldom do.

175. Closing Check on Transit-line Angles. From twice the number of sides of a polygon subtract four, and multiply the result by 90°. The final result is the sum of the interior angles.

Illustration. Triangle: $(2\times3-4)\times90°=180°$. Four-sided: $(2\times4-4)\times90°=360°$. Five-sided: $(2\times5-4)\times90°=540°$. Six-sided: $(2\times6-4)\times90°=720°$. Algebraically: If N = number of sides, S = sum of the interior angles, then $S=(2N-4)\times90°$.

176. The Error of Closure—Transit Lines. In any polygon of transit lines the location of each station with respect to any other station can be *calculated* from the angles and distances measured in the field. If the position of any station is assumed as a starting-point, and then following around the polygon, the position of this same station is found by calculation; the difference between the assumed position and the calculated position is the *error of closure.* This error may be due to: (1) errors in measuring transit-line angles; (2) errors in measuring the *lengths* of transit-lines. In practice a survey seldom closes exactly, due to error from both sources. The permissible error of closure is treated in Chapter XIV on *Field Work.*

177. The Methods of Running Transit Lines most used differ only in the method of measuring and recording the transit-line *angles;* the methods for *linear* measurements are the same, i.e., chaining or measuring with the stadia. The four methods given in the succeeding articles of this chapter may be divided into two groups:

$I\begin{cases}\textit{Running transit lines by } \text{DIRECT ANGLES.}\\ \textit{Running transit lines by } \text{DEFLECTION ANGLES.}\end{cases}$

$II\begin{cases}\textit{Running transit lines by } \text{AZIMUTHS.}\\ \textit{Running transit lines by } \text{BEARINGS.}\end{cases}$

In the first group the angles measured are those which the transit lines make with each other.

In the second group some line of reference, for example, a north-and-south line) is established for the entire survey, and the angles measured are those which the different lines make with lines parallel to this line of reference.

FIRST METHOD.

178. Running Transit Lines by Angles. This method consists simply in measuring each angle directly from a backsight on a preceding station. If desired, the angle can be doubled, tripled, or repeated any number of times. The lengths of the sides may be measured with a chain, a tape, or the stadia. The method may be used whether the transit lines form a closed polygon or not. On the whole it is better in this method to take all angles clockwise.

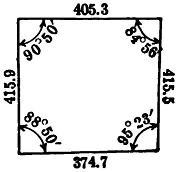

Fig. 178.

Illustration. In Fig. 178 each interior angle was measured to the right (clockwise) from a backsight on the preceding station. If more convenient, the exterior angles could have been measured. (Art. 173.)

Field Notes. Some of the forms of field notes used for this method are given in Chapter XV.

Remark. Triangulation is a special case of the angle method of running transit lines.

SECOND METHOD.

179. Running Transit Lines by Deflection Angles. A modification of the angle method especially applicable to transit lines which do not close, but progress more or less in one general direction. Instead of measuring the angle directly from the backsight, the telescope is plunged and the deflection angle (see Art. 168) is then measured right or left. (Fig. 179.)

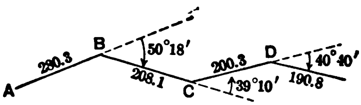

Fig. 179.

Field Notes. Some of the forms of field notes used for recording deflection angles are given in Chapter XV.

THIRD METHOD.

180. Running Transit Lines by Azimuths.* It will be assumed in this explanation that the azimuth of each line is measured from the *north* end of a *magnetic* north-and-south line. The method holds good, however, no matter what line is chosen as a reference-line. Keep clearly in mind what is meant by *azimuth* and *back* azimuth. (See Arts. 160–161, pp. 114–115.)

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* In most books on surveying this method is called *traversing.* As usually defined this term includes not only the azimuth method, but the quadrant *method also.* Moreover, the term traversing (or traverse surveying, or

(*a*) In the azimuth method the main thing to remember is simply this: At whatever station the transit may stand, *when the telescope is pointed north the vernier reading must be zero.* This is *not* accomplished by the use of the compass-needle except at the first set-up; on the contrary, the needle is consulted only as a rough check at all stations except the first.

There are two azimuth methods. In one the telescope is *inverted* when taking a backsight, and is *normal* when taking a foresight; in the other method the telescope is always *normal.* The essential difference between the two is that in the first method no setting of the vernier is required after the first set-up, while in the second method the vernier is set anew at each station.

(*b*) *First Method.* Let the first set-up of the transit be at station *A* (Fig. 180 (*b*)). With plates clamped at zero, point the telescope to the magnetic north as indicated by the needle. This is equivalent to *backsighting on the magnetic north, but this first station is the only one at which the needle is consulted except as a check.* Set the lower clamp as usual for a backsight, and loosening the upper clamp, sight on *B*. Suppose the vernier now reads 50°, then this angle, taken clockwise from the magnetic north, *must be the azimuth of AB. Allow the vernier to remain clamped at* 50°. Setting up at *B*, *plunge* the telescope and backsight on *A*. Having backsighted, plunge the telescope again; it now becomes *normal* and points in the direction of *AB produced* along the line *BP*. If the azimuth of *AB* is 50°, the azimuth of *BP* must also be 50°, and since the ver-

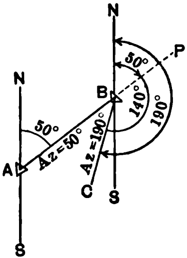

FIG. 180 (*b*).

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running a traverse) is used by many surveyors to indicate any one of the four methods of running comparatively short lines where angles and distances are both measured, contrasted, for example, with triangulation. This accords with the definition of *traverse* as given on page 117. To avoid all ambiguity, however, the method explained in Art. 180 will be called the *azimuth method.*

nier has not been disturbed, it reads 50° just as it did when the transit stood at *A* and the telescope pointed at *B*. If now the telescope is pointed north, the vernier reading will be zero, and if it is pointed to any other station, the vernier reading will be the *azimuth* of the line from station *B* to that station.

(*c*) *Illustration.* (Fig. 180 (*b*).) Set up the transit at *A*, and backsight on the magnetic north with the vernier at zero. Foresight on *B*, the vernier reading will be 50°, or the *azimuth* of *AB*. Without disturbing the vernier set up at *B*, backsight on *A* with *inverted* telescope, *plunge* the *telescope* (it now becomes normal again, the vernier still reading 50°), and foresight on *C*. The vernier will read 190°, or the *azimuth* of *BC*. Allow the vernier to remain clamped at 190, set-up at *C*, *invert* the telescope, backsight on *B*, *plunge* the telescope and sight on the next station. Thus the process can be repeated for any number of stations.

Note. Usually there are azimuths to *other points* beside transit stations which must be taken at each set-up; if so, then the *last* sight before leaving a station must be on the next station, thus automatically setting the vernier for the next set-up.

(*d*) *Second Method.* In this method the telescope is *not* inverted for the backsight, but instead the vernier is set anew at each station so that its reading will be the *azimuth of the backsight.* The *azimuth* of the backsight is equal to the *back azimuth* of the foresight as taken at the preceding station, i.e., add 180° to the azimuth already recorded. For example, if the transit stands at *B* (Fig. 180 (*d*), before backsighting on *A* the vernier is set so that the reading is the *back* azimuth of *AB*, or 230° (obtained by adding 180° to 50°). If, therefore, the vernier is set at 230° and a backsight taken to *A*, upon turning back to zero the telescope will point north. Moreover, if a foresight is taken to any other point, as *C*, the reading of the vernier will be the azimuth of the line from the transit to that point, or the azimuth of *BC*.

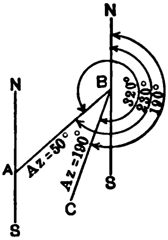

FIG. 180 (*d*).

Illustration. In Fig. 180 (*d*) the transit is set up at *A* and the azimuth of *AB* obtained exactly as in the first method. Set up at *B*, set the vernier at 230° (50°+180°), backsight on *A*, foresight on *C* the new reading will be 190°, or the azimuth of *BC*. Set up at *C*, set the vernier at 190°+180° (i.e., 10°), backsight on *B* and foresight on the next station. Thus the process is repeated at each succeeding station. The telescope is always normal, never inverted for backsight or foresight.

181. Outline of the Two Azimuth Methods.

In both methods the azimuth of the first transit line is established in exactly the same manner by the use of the *magnetic needle.* There are two other ways of getting this first azimuth (explained in Arts. 185 and 186), which can be used with either method. The difference between the two methods of traversing is simply one in *orienting the transit.* (Art. 187.)

First Method	*Second Method*
1. Vernier is left clamped at the forward azimuth of the preceding line.	1. Vernier is reset at the forward azimuth of the preceding line *plus 180°.*
2. Telescope is inverted before backsighting.	2. Telescope remains normal when backsighting.
3. Telescope is plunged after backsighting.	3. Foresight is taken without plunging.

In both methods the azimuth can be read directly from the vernier, *whether in turning off the angle the telescope is moved to the right or to the left.* Transits should be graduated from 0° to 360°, preferably in one direction only, to correspond to angles taken to the *right,* or clockwise.

Field Notes. Some of the forms of field notes used for the azimuth method are given in Chapter XV.

182. When Azimuths and Magnetic Bearings Disagree. The back bearing of the *first* line should be read at the second station. If it agrees with the forward bearing as taken at the first station, it may be assumed that there is no local attraction at either place. If the two bearings disagree, it is necessary, before proceeding with the survey, to establish some transit line the back bearing of which agrees with its forward bearing. Having done this, a new start may be made from either end of the line, since in all probability the azimuth of the line taken at either end will be correct. Thereafter should the azimuth of any transit line disagree with the magnetic bearing and no mistake be found in the azimuth, local attraction may be assumed as the cause. It often happens that such a disagreement will occur for several successive transit lines, but should bearings and azimuths continue to differ by about the same amount the original azimuth upon which all others depend is probably incorrect. If the magnetic needle is to be used as a check throughout the survey, it is obviously important that the original azimuth should be as nearly correct as possible. Herein lies the advantage of starting from a true north-and-south meridian established by observation, and in extended surveys this is often the method used. (See Art. 185.)

183. Comparison of the Two Azimuth Methods.

The first method has no disadvantages as compared with the second method except such as arise from plunging the telescope. If, for example, the line of collimation is badly out of adjustment, an error is introduced each time the telescope is reversed. The advantage of this method over every other method of running transit lines is that after the first set-up it is not necessary (or desirable) to set the vernier, since the *foresight* on each station automatically sets the vernier for that station. Thus the error which is so apt to occur in setting the vernier is eliminated. (For disadvantages see Art. 190, III.)

The second method is used when for any reason it is not best to plunge the telescope, or when, as on the theodolite, the telescope cannot be plunged. A disadvantage as compared with the first method is that the vernier must be set anew at each station.

184. Checking Azimuths by the Magnetic Needle. Any azimuth may be easily reduced to a bearing. (See chapter on *Calculation of Bearings*, Part II.) If, therefore, the *magnetic* north-and-south line is taken as the reference-line for a survey, the azimuth of *any* line may be roughly checked by glancing at the needle while the telescope is still pointing along the line and mentally noting whether or not the azimuth and bearing agree.

185. A True North-and-south Line as a Reference Meridian is often used in place of a magnetic north-and-south line. In that case the azimuths are more readily checked by the needle if the compass-box is adjusted so that when the telescope is pointed to the *true* north the needle will point to the N. of the compass-box. If the declination is known, this may be accomplished by turning off the declination arc, using the vernier inside the compass-box; otherwise a true meridian must be established by an observation on the North Star or by some other method.

Notice that after the declination arc is turned off the N. of the compass-box is no longer exactly underneath the axis of the telescope. In many transits no provision is made for turning off the declination arc.

The advantage of starting from a true meridian established by observation is explained in Art. 182. In ordinary surveys of small extent, however, there is usually no time for establishing such a meridian.

186. Any Reference Meridian may be Used instead of a *north*-and-south line, provided no use is to be made of *bearings* *For example,* the line between the first two stations may be ssumed as a reference meridian (zero azimuth); the azimuth each transit line is then reckoned from a line parallel to the rst transit line. (In that case the meaning of *azimuth* is that iven in Art. 160 (*c*), p. 114.)

In this method the transit lines are all located *with respect* *each other*, which is often all that is necessary, but the needle nnot easily be used for checking azimuths, and this is a disdvantage.

187. Orienting the Transit. In running lines by azimuths, e first step after setting up the transit at any station is to t the graduated plate into such a position that *when the verier reading is zero the line of sight will be parallel to the reference eridian.* This is called *orienting the transit.*

Illustration. If the reference meridian is a north-and south line, *orienting e transit* results in the telescope pointing north (when the vernier reading zero and the telescope is normal). In the first method this is accomished by backsighting with inverted telescope and then plunging; in the cond method by setting the vernier at the *back* azimuth and backsighting.

FOURTH METHOD.

188. Running Transit Lines by Bearings. This method essentially the same as the azimuth method except that *arings* instead of azimuths are read directly from the transit. or this purpose the graduations on the limb should be numered from 0° to 90° to correspond to quadrants of bearing in e compass. (See page 75.)

When the plates are left clamped at the *forward* bearing of a ansit line, the transit is oriented at the next station by backghting with inverted telescope and then plunging; otherwise is oriented by setting the vernier at the *back* bearing and en backsighting. (The two methods of orienting correspond those used for azimuths.)

Either a *true* north-and-south line or a *magnetic* north-anduth line may be taken as a reference meridian. If the former used, it is convenient to turn off the declination arc (see Art. 35) so that bearings read from the limb may be checked by e needle without thinking of the magnetic declination.

Note. The two zeroes on the limb (180° apart) may be called the *north* ro and the *south* zero; *the one with which the zero of the vernier coincides en the telescope points north (the transit having been oriented) is the* NORTH o. (Why, in most cases, will this zero really be nearer the south end of elescope pointed *north?*)

Illustration. In Fig. 180 (*d*), if the transit is oriented at Sta. *B* and is then pointed to Sta. *C*, the vernier reading will be 10°, and since the vernier zero is to the *left* of the S. zero on the limb, the bearing of *BC* is S. 10° W. (Draw a sketch showing the relative position of the telescope, the N. and S. zeroes on the limb, and the vernier zero. (See page 102.)

Caution. In reading bearings, it is evident that an error of 180° will be introduced by mistaking the north zero for the south zero or *vice versa.* Thus in the illustration a common mistake would be to read N. 10° E. instead of S. 10° W.

Note. Precautions should be taken to eliminate error due to local attraction in the bearing of the first line. (See Art. 182.)

A true north-and-south line may be established by observation if desired, and used as a reference meridian for bearings.

Field Notes for this method are similar to those used with azimuths, except that care must be taken to designate in which quadrant of bearing each line lies, i.e., to give its *forward* bearing.

189. Running Transit Lines by Angles and Calculated Bearings. This can hardly be called a separate method. Transit lines are run exactly as in Method I or Method II, but in addition the bearing of each line is *calculated* instead of being read directly from the transit as in Method IV. The bearing of the *first* transit line is obtained from the needle, the angle which that line makes with the *second* transit line is measured, and the *calculated* bearing of the second line found by the method explained in the chapter on *Calculation of Bearings*, Part II. Thereafter the bearing of each transit line is *computed* from the *calculated* (NOT the magnetic) bearing of the preceding transit line, and *is entirely independent* of the magnetic bearing. Since, however, the *first* bearing calculated (i.e., the calculated bearing of the *second* transit line) was obtained from the *magnetic* bearing of the first transit line, all other calculated bearings should agree *approximately* with the corresponding magnetic bearings, and hence any *large* error in a transit-line angle may be detected. The check thus afforded is a valuable one, especially in running the transit lines of a survey which does not close, provided, of course, that the needle is not continually affected by local attraction.

Remark. If the cause of local attraction is not about the person of the observer, but remains stationary, an angle can still be checked by the needle provided two readings are taken at the station where the transit stands, one the back bearing of the preceding line, the other the forward bearing of the line ahead.

Note. Precautions to eliminate errors due to local attraction should be taken in assuming the bearing of the first line in order to use the needle throughout the survey as a rough check.

(*a*) *Illustration.* The bearing of *AB*, Fig. 189 (*a*), as read at *A* is N. 20° E. *The back bearing*, read at *B*, is S. 20° W.; hence N. 20° E. is assumed as correct. The angles at *B*, *C*, and *D* are indicated on the figure. The calculated bearings of the different lines are also indicated.

Using the method explained in Part II the calculation is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{rl} AB = & \text{N. } 20^\circ \text{ E.} + \text{ (S.W.)} \\ ABC = & \underline{\quad 60^\circ \quad -} \\ BC = & \text{S. } 40^\circ \text{ E.} - \\ BCD = & \underline{\quad 30^\circ \quad -} \\ CD = & \text{S. } 70^\circ \text{ E.} - \text{ (N.W.)} \\ CDE = & \underline{\quad 100 \quad +} \\ DE = & \text{N. } 30 \text{ E.} + \end{array}$$

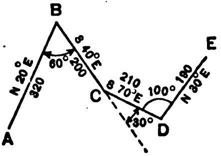

FIG. 189 (*a*).

Notice that since the angle $BCD = 30^\circ$ is a *deflection* angle, the *forward* bearing of *BC* is used instead of the back bearing, i.e., the letters S.E. are not changed to N.W. before adding 30° algebraically.

For other examples of the calculation of bearings see the chapter on *Calculation of Bearings*, Part II.

Note. In extended surveys a true north-and-south line is often established by observation, and the bearing of the first transit line is then *calculated* from the angle which it makes with the line thus established. See, for example, line *YV* in the sketch of transit lines (p. 390).

(*b*) *Check for a closed polygon.* The bearing of the first line assumed from the needle reading is sometimes called a calculated bearing, and hence it may be said that the calculated and magnetic bearings are *exactly* the same for the first line, although this is not likely to be true of other lines. If the transit lines form a closed polygon, a second calculated bearing may be obtained for the first line from the calculated bearing of the last side and the closing angle. The discrepancy between the assumed bearing of the first line and the final calculated bearing as thus obtained is equal to the total error in the sum of the interior angles, as found by the check of Art. 175, p. 119.

Illustration. The assumed bearing of the first side of a triangle is N. 30° E. The calculated bearing of the same side found by following around the triangle is N. 30° 1′ E. This indicates that there is an error of 1′ in the sum of the interior angles. In a similar way the sum of the interior angles of any polygon may be checked no matter how many sides it has.

Field Notes. Some of the forms of field notes used with this method will be found in Chapter XV.

190. Methods of Running Transit Lines Compared. Use the method best adapted to the work in hand. There is not much difference between the methods in the time required for field work.

I. METHOD BY DIRECT ANGLES. Used in all kinds of work but especially in small surveys where there are but few transit lines and where the survey closes.

Advantages. (1) Angles at any station may be measured by repetition or by series, a decided advantage in accurate work. (2) Stations may be occupied in any order. (3) The angle at one station is not affected by the angle measured at a preceding station.

Disadvantages. (1) Angles in order to be checked by the needle must be reduced to calculated bearings. (2) A distinction must be made in the field notes between right and left angles unless *all* angles are taken in one direction (clockwise). (3) It must be made plain in the field notes which station was used as a backsight for each angle. (4) The vernier must be set anew at each station.

II. METHOD BY DEFLECTION ANGLES. Used chiefly in railway and highway work,—adapted to surveys in which each transit line makes a small angle (less than 90°) with the preceding transit line produced. Used in running in curves.

Advantages and disadvantages are practically the same as for the preceding method. Railroad curves are usually laid out by means of deflection angles and hence the method is used in nearly all railroad surveying. For other kinds of work, however, the advantages of the method are often overestimated. (1) Unless each angle is doubled it involves practically every error in the adjustment of the transit, especially the error caused by plunging the telescope when the line of sight is not perpendicular to the supporting axis; in the preceding method this error is not involved. (2) It is necessary to take angles right or left, a common source of mistakes in note-keeping, while in the preceding method this can be avoided by taking all angles clockwise. Deflection angles never exceed 180°, and this is of some advantage in plotting but even this advantage is very slight, and it is always doubtful policy to save office work at the expense of field work.

III. RUNNING TRANSIT LINES BY AZIMUTHS. Almost always used in stadia surveying and for certain forms of topographic work. It can often be used to advantage in railway and highway work. The method is a valuable one and should be used, perhaps, even more than it is.

Advantages. (1) The needle is a constant check on the azimuth of each line. (2) The method avoids nearly all the disadvantages given for the two preceding methods, i.e., it is not necessary to enter the backsight in the field notes, or to make a distinction between right and left angles or to set the vernier anew at each station. (3) The azimuth gives the bearing without using the letters that correspond to the compass-points. (4) Field notes are usually simple, definite, *and easily plotted.*

Disadvantages. (1) The method does not lend itself readily to measuring angles by repetition or by series. (2) Each station must be occupied in order without skipping any. This may be a serious disadvantage if for any reason it is impossible or undesirable to set up over a transit station at any given time. (3) A mistake in the azimuth of one line affects the azimuths of all succeeding lines. This does not mean, however, that all the work is lost, for the azimuth of each succeeding line is affected by the *same* amount, and though these succeeding lines are all wrong with respect to the reference meridian of the survey, they may still be correctly located with respect to each other. If the mistake is discovered, the notes are easily changed by applying the correction to each succeeding line, though if there are many side shots this may cause considerable extra work. (4) If local attraction exists for any considerable number of stations, the advantages of checking azimuths by the needle is lost. (5) In the first method of running azimuths, plunging the telescope involves the same error in the adjustment of the line of sight that is involved in the deflection-angle method.

IV. Running Transit Lines by Bearings. This method, probably a survival of the compass-survey method, is little used at present.

Advantages. It has no advantage over the preceding method except, possibly, a slight advantage in checking lines by the needle, while it has all its *disadvantages* and in addition: (1) A special numbering of the graduations on the limb (0° to 90°) is called for; (2) Likelihood of mistaking the north zero for the south zero, or *vice versa;* (3) Letters corresponding to compass-points must be used.

V. Calculated Bearings when used in connection with either of the first two methods serve as an excellent check on the transit-line angles, provided local attraction does not exist. While mistakes of less than 15 minutes are not detected by the use of the needle, nevertheless in a survey which does not close there is no other check unless angles are measured by repetition.

VI. MEASURING ANGLES BY REPETITION. Many surveyors, when running transit lines by either of the first two methods, believe in doubling all transit-line angles, if for no other reason than to guard against error. It requires more time in the field, but often saves time in the end. Angles can be measured with greater accuracy by repetition than by the ordinary method. (See page 99.)

191. Transit Lines—Summary.

1. Transit lines are imaginary lines of reference by which and from which the details of a survey are located. They are the skeleton lines of the survey.

2. A system of transit lines may form a closed polygon, or a network of polygons, or it may consist of a series of lines which do not close.

3. In any polygon of transit lines either exterior or interior angles may be measured. A check is afforded by adding interior angles. (Art. 175, p. 119.)

4. Error of closure is usually due both to error in lengths of transit lines and error in angles.

5. There are four common methods of running transit lines, two of which depend upon measuring the angle which one transit line makes with another transit line; the other two depend upon measuring the angle which each transit line makes with a line parallel to a reference meridian (as, for example, a north-and-south line).

6. The four methods are: (1) Angles; (2) Deflection Angles; (3) Azimuths; (4) Bearings.

7. In the *angle* method all angles are measured directly from the backsight without plunging the telescope, while in the *deflection*-angle method all angles are measured from the backsight *produced* by plunging the telescope. This is the principal difference between the two methods.

8. In the azimuth method the azimuth of the first line may be determined in one of three ways.

(1) By the magnetic needle; all azimuths will then be *magnetic* azimuths.

(2) By establishing a true north-and-south meridian by observation, and measuring the azimuth of the first line from this meridian. All azimuths will then be *true* azimuths. In this case the declination arc is often turned off.

(3) *If bearings* are of no importance, the azimuth of the first

line may be assumed as zero or any other convenient quantity. All azimuths will then be *relative,* i.e., azimuths with respect to the first transit line as a reference meridian.

9. There are two methods of orienting the transit in running by azimuths. In one the vernier must be set anew at each station (at the back azimuth) and the telescope is never inverted. In the other the vernier is set automatically for each station by a foresight taken while at the preceding station, but the telescope must be inverted before backsighting and plunged before foresighting.

10. If the azimuth of the first line is correct, a discrepancy between the azimuth and the bearing of any other line indicates a mistake in measuring the angle; if no mistake is found in the angle, local attraction may exist.

11. Running transit lines by bearings is similar to the azimuth method, but calls for the quadrant system of numbering graduations on the limb. Errors are much more likely to occur and the method is but little used.

12. Calculated bearings may be used as a rough check in running transit lines by angles or by deflection angles.

13. Any method of checking transit lines by the magnetic needle is useless in locations where local attraction exists.

14. Doubling angles, or measuring angles by repetition, is a more certain check than that afforded by the magnetic needle, and it is also a much more accurate one. By this method angles can also be measured with greater precision than by the ordinary method.

CHAPTER XIII

METHODS OF LOCATING DETAILS

In this chapter are given the geometrical methods in common use for locating boundary lines, street lines, buildings, fences, rivers, bridges, and other details of a survey. The different methods are outlined without entering upon the routine of the field work, or discussing the practical questions which arise in connection with that work.. (See the next chapter for field work.)

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192. Transit Survey—General Method. A transit survey is one in which the transit is the principal instrument used: this implies the measurement of angles as the distinguishing characteristic. Part of the work in such a survey consists in running the transit lines according to one of the methods explained in the preceding chapter, and the rest of the work consists in locating details of the survey using these transit lines as reference-lines. It is desirable to have either a transit station or a transit line conveniently near each detail that is to be located, such, for example, as a house or a fence-corner; in establishing transit stations this should always be kept in mind. (See Art. 216, p. 149.) The different geometrical methods used are exactly the same as those employed by draftsmen for locating points on paper. Some involve linear measurements only, others are based entirely upon the measurement of angles, while still others combine linear and angular measurements.

193. Two Methods of Carrying on the Work. Having chosen the method of running the transit lines (Art. 217, p. 151) there are two ways to proceed: (1) Lengths and angles of the transit lines may be measured and the entire system established before work is begun on the location of details. This means going over the ground twice, once for transit lines and once for details. (2) A more common method is to complete all the measurements at a station at one set-up, carrying on the work of running the transit lines and of locating the details simultaneously, and establishing new stations as fast as they are needed.

The first method is good for a survey of considerable extent, in which a network of transit lines must be established with care. The second method is better for a survey which does not close, or for one in which it makes little difference where the transit lines are run, or for small surveys with comparatively few stations where the work can be done in a short time.

As a compromise between the two methods it is often best before beginning a survey to decide upon the approximate positions for the different stations, and then, working by the second method, set the stations more exactly as fast as they are needed.

194. Locating Objects from Transit Lines. Seven methods of locating a point have already been given on page 4. Locating details consists simply in locating two or more points of each object by one or more of these seven methods. Transit lines form the skeleton upon which the survey is built. Objects are usually located from the nearest or most convenient transit line. Enough points are taken to completely locate the object, with perhaps an additional point or two for a check. Thus, for example, it is enough to determine the position of two corners of a rectangular building directly from a transit line, the other two corners being located indirectly by measuring the building itself; it is well, however, in accurate work to locate a third corner from a transit line as a check.

Sometimes it is necessary to locate different parts of the same object from different stations or transit lines. For example, part of a large building may be located from a station near one end, while other portions of the building are located from a station near the other end. Fence-lines and street-lines are nearly always located from at least two stations. For example, in a survey of a rectangular field each corner of the field may be located from a station near it, and each boundary line will thus be fixed by two points located from different stations, and possibly from different transit lines also. See page 141.

In locating the different points of any detail of the survey the surveyor must be quick to see which of the seven methods given on page 4 is best adapted to his purpose. (See Art. 223. p. 156.) Sometimes, however, he has no choice but must use the one method possible, as, for example, the method of triangulation in locating an inaccessible point. Of the seven methods referred to, one depends upon the intersection of two straight lines, two depend upon linear measurements only, while the other four involve measurements of angles. Since the transit is an instrument for measuring angles, these last four methods are most characteristic of transit surveying. In the succeeding pages, however, there will be found illustrations which are intended to give a general idea of the way in which all seven methods are used in locating objects from transit lines.

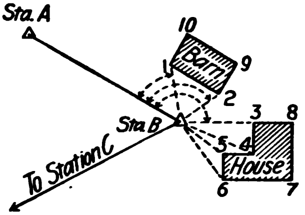
First those methods which combine linear and angular measurements will be given, and then those methods which involve linear measurements only.

More complete illustrations in which different methods are combined will be found in the various forms of field notes given in Chapter XV.

METHODS INVOLVING ANGULAR MEASUREMENTS

195. Locating Objects by Angles and Distances.

(*a*) *Illustration.* Any number of points may be located from a station by taking an angle to each point and measuring the corresponding distance from the station to the point. (Method 3, p. 4.) The angles are usually all taken from the *same* backsight. (Art. 127, p. 94.) In Fig. 195 (*a*) the transit is at station *B*, backsight on station *A*. Angles are taken to *1* and *2* (corners of the barn) and *3*, *4*, *5*, and *6* (corners of the house), and the corresponding distances from station *B* to these corners are measured. "Measuring up," i.e., measuring the lengths of the sides of the barn and the house, completes the field work of location. In many cases it would be sufficient to locate two corners of the house, as, for example, *3* and *4* or *5* and *6*.



195 (*a*).

Locating objects by azimuths and distances. In the preceding illustration, and in many that follow, it will be observed that the method of locating objects holds good when azimuths are used in place of the usual angle taken from some backsight. Indeed, azimuth means an angle taken clockwise from a *north-and-south line* or from some other meridian as a backsight.

(*b*) *Illustration. Locating an object by an angle and distance to one point only.* In Fig. 195 (*b*) a method is shown which is often used for locating a rectangular object. A point *c* is "lined in" with the transit between stations *F* and *G*, and at the same time brought into line *by eye* with one side of the house, as *ab*. The point *c* being thus established the transit is set up at *c*, the angle *Fcb* is taken, and the distances *Fc* and *cb* are measured. One corner of the house *b* having been located in this way, the other corners are found by "measuring up" the house itself. This method is most used when the object is too far away to be located from a regular transit station, and yet is comparatively near one of the transit lines; although it is not the most accurate method, it will often answer the purpose. A method similar to this but one which does away with the setting up of a transit at *c* is given on page 139, Fig. 199 (*a*).

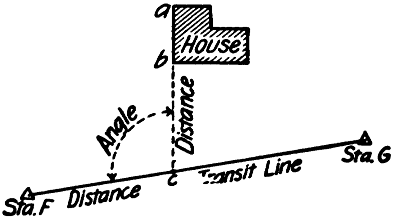


Fig. 195 (*b*).

(*c*) *Illustration. Locating curves by angles and distances.* The simplest way of locating a curve made up of *circular* arcs of small radii is to find by trial the radius and center of each arc, locate each center from the nearest transit station, and in addition, if necessary, locate the points where each curve ends or where it changes to a different curve. When, however, the radii are large or when the curve is irregular, i.e., not composed of *true* circular arcs, some other method must be used. One method, especially adapted to the location of small, sharp, irregular curves such as driveways, park walks, and other similar curves, is given in Fig. 195 (*c*). Notice that for each angle measured two points are located. Thus, with transit at *E*, backsight at *D*, an angle to 7 is taken, 7′ is lined in, and the two distances to 7 and 7′ are measured, the object being to save work in plotting. The second point can usually be set in line with the first by eye. Chain-pins or stakes can be stuck into the ground at intervals, close together where the curve changes rapidly, farther apart where the curve is less abrupt, and the angles and distances measured to these points, or, on the other hand, angles can be turned off, say every 15°, the corresponding points on the curve marked, and the distances to these points then measured. It often happens that, by making the same angle serve for the location of two or more points, work in plotting is saved not only in the location of curves, but also in the location of all kinds of objects.

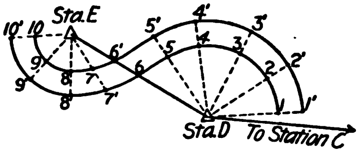


FIG. 195 (c).

(*d*) *Illustration. Locating a point by an angle and distance when the distance is measured from some fixed point other than the transit station.* (Method 4, page 4.)

In the three preceding illustrations the distance to any point located was measured from the station where the transit stood when the angle to that point was taken. (Method 3, p. 4.) Instead of measuring from the transit station it is sometimes more convenient to measure from some other point already located as shown in Fig. 195 (*d*) and Fig. 195 (*e*).

In Fig. 195 (*d*) corner *b* is located in the usual way. Corner *a* is located also by an angle from the backsight on station *G*, *but the distance is measured from b* instead of from station *H*.

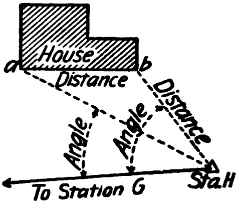


FIG. 195 (*d*).

(*e*) This method may also be used for determining the direction of a street which branches off from the main survey. As only enough of the street will be shown on the map to indicate its direction, it will usually suffice to locate a single point, as, for example, *b* in Fig. 195 (*e*). The corner *a* having been located by an angle and distance in the usual manner, an angle is taken to *b*, *but the distance from a to b is measured instead of* the distance from *Sta. B* to *b*. This method might be used, for example, if on account of fences it is much easier to measure *from a to b than it* is to measure from *Sta. B* to *b*. If more con-

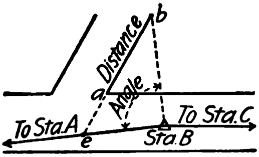


FIG. 195 (*e*).

venient, produce *ba* to *e* and measure from *Sta. B* to *e*. (See p. 140, Fig. 199 (*c*), for another method of getting the direction of a street.)

196. Locating Points by Two Intersecting Angles.

Illustration. (Method 5, p. 4.) In Fig. 196 a transit at *B*, backsight at *C*, measures the angle *CB*2. At the same time another transit at *C*, backsight at *B*, measures the angle *BC*2. The distance *BC* being known, the point 2 is thus located. Any number of points along the bank may be determined in a similar manner. When this method is followed two transits are generally used.

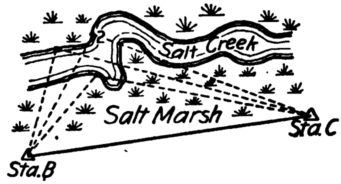


FIG. 196.

This method may be used for locating any point which can be seen from two transit stations, as, for example, a fence-corner or the corner of a building. The method is not as accurate as the preceding methods unless the base-line and angles are measured with great care. If the angle at the intersection of the two lines is too acute, it makes it difficult in plotting to determine the exact point of intersection.

This method is especially adapted to locating inaccessible points and for taking soundings. It is much used in plane-table work.

197. Locating Points by the Three-point Method. (Method 7, p. 4.) Let *H*, *I*, and *K* in Fig. 197 be stations on shore the positions of which are known. Let 1, 2, and 3 be points on the water at which buoys are placed or soundings taken. At each of these points two angles between lines to the three stations on shore are taken, as indicated on the figure, thus locating each point. The angles are usually measured with a sextant. The peculiarity of this method is that *the angles are all taken at the point to be located.* The points could of course be located by the method of the preceding article, the two

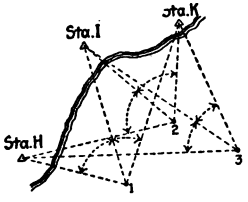


FIG. 197.

transits on shore occupying two of the three stations, as Sta. H and Sta. I, or Sta. I and Sta. K.

METHODS INVOLVING LINEAR MEASUREMENTS ONLY

All the methods on the preceding pages depend upon the measurement of one or more angles. Much of the work of locating objects, however, can be done without measuring angles. Of the two methods involving only linear measurements (page 4) that of locating a point by offsets is the one more used.

198. Locating Objects by Offsets.

(*a*) This method corresponds to method 2, p. 4. The *perpendicular* distances to the transit line from different points of an object are called *offsets*. (For methods of erecting perpendiculars see p. 61.) Enough offsets are taken to completely locate the object, the distances *between* the offsets being measured *along the transit line*. In Fig. 198 (*a*) only two offsets are needed to locate the building.

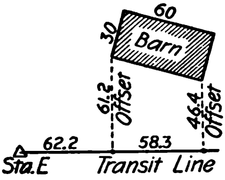


FIG. 198 (*a*).

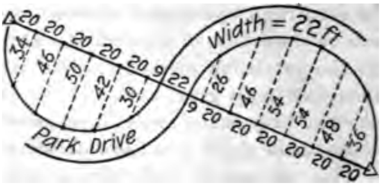


FIG. 198 (*b*).

(*b*) Anything which is *regular in outline* can be located by offsets taken at *equal* intervals along the transit line. Thus in Fig. 198 (*b*) offsets were taken every 20 ft. Notice that distances (9 ft. and 22 ft.) were measured to the points where the transit line crosses the curves. In keeping notes some engineers prefer to consider offsets on one side of the transit line *plus*,— on the other side minus.

(*c*) *Irregular outlines* are best located by offsets at *unequal* intervals, for in this way only can the points of abrupt change in the line be determined. The edge of a bluff, a river bank, or any other irregular line can be located by running a transit line near it and taking offsets as illustrated in Fig. 198 (*c*).

(*d*) In locating objects by offsets remember three things:

(1) The distance from one of the offsets to a transit station

(or some other known point on the transit line) must be measured. If, for example in Fig. 198 (*c*), the distance 30 ft. from

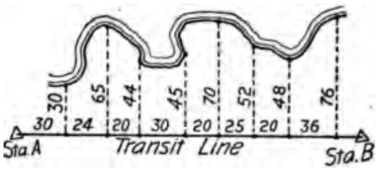


FIG. 198 (*c*).

Sta. A to the first offset were not measured, the rest of the work would be useless.

(2) An offset should be taken at every point where there is an abrupt change in the outline to be located.

(3) Offsets should be taken to all points of the outline which are *farthest from* or *nearest to* the transit line.

Note. It will facilitate plotting (and the field work too) if, instead of measuring distances between offsets as shown in the figure, the total distance of each offset from the transit station is measured. Thus, starting from *Sta. A*, the successive points would be numbered according to the system explained on page 147, +30, +54, +74, 1+04, 1+24, 1+49, 1+69, 2+05. This shows that the last offset is 205 ft. from *Sta. A*, and, if the remaining distance to *Sta. B* is now measured in the same way, the result should equal the total distance previously found by chaining between *A* and *B*. This is a valuable check on all the intermediate measurements along the transit line as well as upon the total measurement itself. In getting the plus stations *no arithmetical addition is necessary;* simply stretch the tape its full length each time and read the plus for each point directly from the tape.

199. Locating Objects by Measurements Oblique to the Transit Line.

Illustration. In Fig. 199 (*a*) and Fig. 199 (*b*) are shown two different methods of locating a building, each of which, however, depends upon the same general principle. (Method I, p. 4.) In Fig. 199 (*a*) points *d* and *e* are two points *on the transit line*, and the distance of one of these points from the nearest station is measured. Point *e* was taken on a line with one side of the building, and point *d* is any convenient distance from *e*. The corner of the building is then located by the distances from d and e. In Fig.

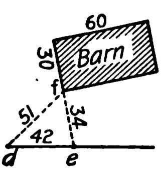


FIG. 199 (*a*).

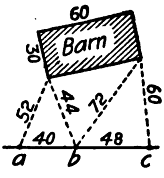


FIG. 199 (*b*).

199 (*b*) each of the two corners of the building nearest the transit line are located by two distances from points (*a* and *b* or *b* and *c*) on the transit line.

In Fig. 199 (*a*) if the corner *f* of the building had been a considerable distance from the transit line, in place of the 51 ft. line to *f* a "tie-line" to some other point on *fe* could have been used, thus fixing the *direction* of *fe*. The "tie-line" answers the same purpose as measuring the angle (p. 135, Fig. 195 (*b*)), and while not quite as accurate, it can often be used to advantage. In Fig. 199 (*c*) another illustration of the use of "tie-lines" is given.

(*c*) *Use of tie-lines.* In Fig. 199 (*c*) the intersection *c* of two street-lines is located from *Sta. B* by an angle and distance in the usual way. No other point is located from *Sta. B*, *the street-line cef being located by a second point taken from some other station not shown in the figure.* The point *d* determines the direction of a side street. Measure from *c* to *d* and from *c* to any other point *e* on the line *cf* The length of the "tie-line" *de* determines the angle *dce*. (Another method: produce *dc* to *a*, see p. 136.) In a similar way if a point *n* has been lined in by eye with a division-fence, a tie-line from any point *m* to any point *o* will determine the direction of the fence and thus avoid a "set-up" at *n*.

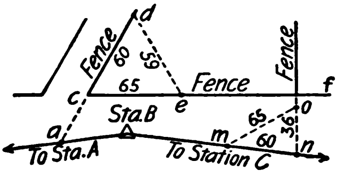


FIG. 199 (*c*).

(*d*) *Offsets oblique to the transit line.* In Fig. 199 (*d*) the points *d* and *c* on the transit line were lined in by eye with two sides of a building, and the distances *ad* and *bc* were measured. The point *d* was located from *Sta. A*, and the building was measured up. Notice that *dc* was *not* measured. This method is not geometrically correct, for, in plotting, the distance *ab* and *dc* are assumed equal. They are equal for all practical purposes, since this method *would not be* used except in cases where the transit line runs

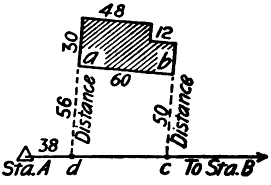


FIG. 199 (*d*).

approximately parallel to the side of the house, and where the map will be plotted to such a small scale that the discrepancy between the lengths of *ab* and *dc* will not show.

200. Locating Boundaries. In surveying boundary-lines it is not often practicable to make the transit lines coincide with the boundary- or fence-lines; they are therefore run around the field outside or inside as may be more convenient. It is not necessary to establish the transit lines parallel to the boundary-lines, although when it is desired to find the angle at the intersection of the boundaries it may be well to do so; even then, however, it is not really necessary, since the required angles can be calculated.

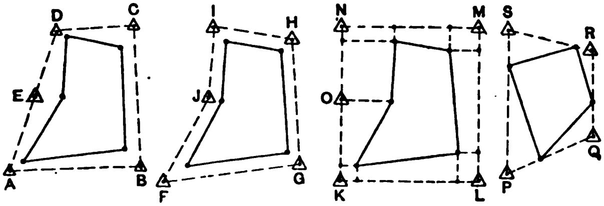


Fig. 200.

Illustration. In Fig. 200 three methods are shown for locating the boundary-lines of the same plot of land. It is assumed that buildings, fences, or other obstacles prevent the transit lines (represented in the figure by broken lines) from being established on the boundary-lines.

(1) Transit lines *ABCDE* are run *at random*, and each corner of the plot is located from the nearest station by one of the usual methods,—in most cases by angle and distance. (See p. 134.)

(2) Transit lines *FGHIJ* are parallel respectively to corresponding boundary-lines, and the corners of the plot are located as in the first method; or each boundary-line is located by offsets from the corresponding transit line. (See p. 138.)

(3) Any convenient rectangle of transit lines, as *KLMNO*, is established, and each corner of the plot is located by perpendicular distances from the nearest transit lines.

In the figure the transit lines in each case are shown wholly outside of the tract surveyed. If more convenient, they may be wholly inside or partly inside and partly outside.

The *first* method is the one most used because it involves the least field work. The *second* method calls for extra work in establishing the transit lines parallel to the boundaries, but it gives the angle at each corner of the plot directly without computation. In the third method the difficulty lies in getting the points where the perpendiculars from the corners of the plot intersect the transit lines, especially if this must be done with considerable precision, but when it is desired to save office work at the expense of field work this method is a valuable one. It is evident that much time is saved in plotting and in office computations.

In the second and third methods, buildings, fences, and other obstacles may render it difficult to establish the transit lines, while in the first method, since the transit lines are run at random, obstacles are more easily avoided.

This illustration shows how it is often necessary to locate different points of an object from different transit stations. Thus, for example, any one of the three methods could be employed for locating a large building. For staking out a building the third method is generally used. (See p. 210.)

(4) The lines *PQRS* illustrate a fourth method, which is not a common one, but which can be used sometimes to advantage where conditions are favorable. It consists simply in running a transit line through each corner of the lot, and measuring along these lines to the respective corners. Not much work is saved in the field by this method, but the office work of plotting and of calculating the area is simplified. It has the further advantage of definitely locating each corner with the fewest possible measurements.

In the Field Notes of Chapter XV will be found more complete illustrations of the use of transit lines for locating boundaries.

201. Practical Application of Methods. The field work of locating details, involving such questions as which methods to use and how to apply them, is discussed in the next chapter. A careful study of the illustration in the second part of Chapter XV on Field Notes, especially the survey for an electric road (Illustrations V and VI, pp. 184–186), and the survey of a city street (Illustration VII, p. 188), will suggest how several methods may be combined in practice It is well worth while to plot the notes referred to in order to gain an idea of the actual field work of locating details.

202. Summary. Transit lines form a skeleton upon which the survey is built. Details are located from the nearest or most convenient transit line. There are seven methods of locating any point, four of which involve the measurement of one or more angles, two depend upon linear measurement only, and one upon the intersection of two straight lines. No one method should be used to the exclusion of all others, and the surveyor must be quick to see which is best adapted to his purpose.

1. The most common method for locating a point is that *by angle and distance.* It is quick and accurate, and should ordinarily be used for points near a transit station, when measurements from the station to the points can be made without difficulty. For a number of such points angles should be taken from the same backsight. One angle will often serve to locate several points.

2. A *second method* differs from the preceding in that the *distance* to the point located is measured from some other point instead of from the transit station. Used when it is more convenient to measure from a near-by point already located than to measure from the transit station itself.

3. A *third method* for locating a point depends upon two angles, one taken at one transit station, the other at another transit station, with the line between the two stations as a base-line. Two transits are ordinarily used, although the work can often be done with one. Used for locating inaccessible points or points too far from transit stations for linear measurements to be taken. Especially adapted to locating points on the water. The method is not accurate unless the base-line and angles are measured with great care. With ordinary precautions, however, it answers the purpose in locating unimportant details.

4. A *fourth method* involves the measuring of two angles *at the point to be located.* The angles measured are formed by three lines radiating from the unknown point to three known points. Used for hydrographic surveying and similar work. This method is the so called "three-point" method.

5. A *fifth method,* locating points by offsets, involves linear measurements only. Used for locating objects which are near a transit line but not near a transit station. Especially adapted to locating curves, and irregular lines such as river banks, and edges of bluffs. Also used for locating buildings.

6. A *sixth method* is that in which each point is located by two distances, one from each of two known points. This method

is quite accurate, and is often more convenient to use than one involving the measurement of angles. The "tie-line," one form of this method, will often save setting up the transit, as it virtually determines the angle required.

7. A *seventh method* is that of locating a point by two intersecting straight lines from four known points. Used principally for referencing points, but it can also be used to some extent in locating points.

8. No matter how many points of an object may be located, the dimensions of the object itself should be ascertained. This means that lengths of boundary-lines, lengths of street-lines, and lengths of all other important lines, especially straight lines, should be measured along the lines themselves in addition to locating the ends of the lines from transit stations.

9. *Rectangular objects*, such as buildings, are commonly located in one of the following ways: (It is assumed that the dimensions of the object are also ascertained.) (1) By angles and distances to two or more corners; (2) By the angle and the distance to *one* corner from a point on the transit line which is also in line with two corners of the object, one of which is the corner located; (3) By an angle and distance to one corner and the angle (but not the corresponding distance) to another corner; (4) By offsets; (5) By producing one side of the object to an intersection with the transit line and measuring a "tie-line"; (6) By locating two corners, each by two distances from known points.

10. The *direction* of a street-line or a division-fence line or any similar line branching from the main survey may be determined by producing the line until it intersects the transit line (or some other known line), and then locating one additional point on the line by angle and distance, or by a "tie-line."

11. Unbroken curves may be located either by offsets, or by locating controlling points by any of the usual methods.

12. *Finally.* If an object covers considerable ground, it may be necessary to locate different parts of it from different stations or different transit lines; in locating long lines, such as street-lines and boundary-lines, this is especially true. In locating any object it may be well to use one method for locating some of the points, and another method for locating other points; thus a combination of two or more of the seven methods may be used often to good advantage.

CHAPTER XIV

TRANSIT SURVEYING. FIELD WORK

It is comparatively easy to learn the theoretical methods of running transit lines and of locating details given in the two preceding chapters. On the other hand the judgment required for choosing methods best adapted to the work in hand, and the skill necessary for carrying out the field work with accuracy and despatch, can only be acquired from a long and varied experience in the field. It is not desirable, therefore, to lay down hard and fast rules for field work. The most that can be done is to outline the routine usually followed, and to discuss in a general way practical questions which arise in the field.

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203. Transit Party. Transitman, chainmen, flagman, axeman, and others who work together as one party in making a transit survey. The size of the party depends upon the nature of the work. Two men may constitute a transit party, but usually three can work to better advantage. When much chaining has to be done, and many angles taken, a party of four or five men is still better. Sometimes several transit parties are at work on the same survey. The duties of each member of the party are outlined at the end of this chapter.

204. The Instruments and Equipment for a surveying party depend upon the work to be done. For ordinary surveys the different members of a transit party should be equipped as follows:

1. *Transitman.* Transit, plumb-bob, reading-glass.

2. *Note-keeper.* Note-book, pencil, eraser, straight-edge, scribbling-pad, and trigonometric tables.

3 and 4. *Chainmen.* Steel tape, chaining-pins, plumb-bob.

5. *Axeman and Flagman.* Axe, stakes, transit-pole, crayon, tacks.

In addition to the above list it is well habitually to carry in the pocket a short steel tape, reading-glass, sharp knife with screw-driver blade, pad of scribbling-paper, string or spool of fine wire, pencil, and eraser.

For a more complete list of instruments and equipment consult Part III.

205. Signals in common use in surveying are as follows:

1. In "lining in" a motion is made with one hand or the other in the direction in which the pole, stake, or pencil is to be moved: a vigorous motion, move quite a distance; a slight motion, a small distance.

2. Waving the arms so as to bring the hands together over the head means "all right."

3. When the transitman wishes a rod held for a sight he raises an arm to a vertical position.

4. The left arm held *vertically* means to plumb the rod in that direction; the right arm, plumb in the opposite direction.

5. When a transitman is through with a flagman for the time being, but is likely to need another sight on the same point, he simply signals all right. When, however, he is entirely through and wishes the flagman to "come in" or to move to the next station he waves a handkerchief. Unless there is some clear understanding on this point a flagman is apt to come in at a signal of "all right," and thus cause needless delay.

5. When the flagman holds his transit-pole in a horizontal position over his head he means that he is going to give a sight on a transit station. The same signal is used when establishing a transit station to indicate that the tack is set and the station completed.

Additional signals are often used, such, for example, as "give a point on line" and "another sight wanted."

Any system of signals may be used in place of those given. It is a matter of small consequence what the signals are, provided they are clearly understood by every member of the transit party. Avoid shouting: it is an evidence of "greenness."

206. Transit Survey—General Method. Transit lines, run according to one of the methods of Chapter XII, are used as reference-lines. The field work consists: (1) In running the transit lines, and (2) in locating points of the survey with reference to those transit lines. Keeping notes is also an important part of the work.

The work of running the transit lines and of locating details may be carried on simultaneously, or the entire system of transit lines may be established before the work of locating details is begun. The question of when to use one method and when to use the other has already been discussed on pp. 132–133.

207. A Transit Station may be any well-defined point as a tack in a stake, a nail in the crack of a curb, or an X scratched on a pavement. If a stake is used, it should be driven flush in the ground and a guard-stake put near it. The former stake is called a "hub." A transit station may be established in two ways:

(1) Its position may be chosen, and the exact point marked before any sight is taken on it, or (2) it may be "sighted in" from the transit, as, for example, when a station is to be established "on line" with two other stations. When the transit station is to be lined in the flagman first holds the transit-pole or, better still, the stake itself, and moves it into line in accordance with the signals from the transitman. (See Art. 205.) Having determined the required point, the stake is driven, and the pole (or a pencil if it can be seen) is again held to find the exact point on the stake for driving the tack. In rough work the tack is unnecessary, the stake itself answering every purpose.

208. Guard-stake. A stake driven partly into the ground, a foot or so from the station, so that the station itself may be easily found and identified. The station number should be marked on it *from the top towards the bottom*, and the stake should be driven on the left of the transit line, so that the number may be easily read as one walks along the line. If it is driven at a *slant* (with top inclined away from the station), it will not be mistaken for the hub itself, and the lettering is more easily read than if the stake is vertical. If for any reason a guard-stake near a station is likely to be knocked over, it may be driven a few feet away and marked accordingly, as, for example, Sta. 15 (12 ft. North). Flat stakes are often used for guard-stakes, and square stakes for hubs.

209. Numbering or Lettering Stations. Stations are usually numbered or lettered in the order in which they are established, but this is not essential. Numbering is better than lettering where there are many stations. In railway work and in some other kinds of work the first station is often numbered zero, and the other stations are numbered to indicate how many feet they are from zero *measured along the transit line*—one number for every one hundred feet. Thus: 15=1500, 15+50=1550, 15+83.5=1583.5, 16=1600 feet from zero, and so on.

Remark. The surveyor's crayon or "keel," used for marking stakes, differs very much in its water-proof qualities. Test by marking a stake and then trying to wash it off. Make all numerals bold and distinct, pressing the crayon into the surface of the wood.

210. Choosing a Place for a Transit Station. Do not choose a place for a station where the transit is easily jarred or disturbed. Avoid stations close to car-tracks, on loose planking, soft or marshy ground, smooth pavements, or other places where the legs of the tripod are easily moved.

Do not choose a station where the line of sight will be continually obstructed by passing wagons, cars, or people, if it can be avoided. In a crowded city street the surveying may have to be done very early in the morning.

Illustration. Near the curb is a better place for a station than in the middle of the sidewalk, and, where there is much traffic, stations on the same side of a street are better than on opposite sides. Avoid choosing a station where it will be destroyed when the work of construction begins.

211. Referencing a Station. When a station is likely to be used more than once it should be referenced, so that if lost or destroyed it can be restored. This precaution is especially necessary when stations are where carting, excavating, grading, and other construction work is going on. Three methods for referencing a point with a tape are illustrated on p. 54. The third method, perhaps, is the one most used in transit surveying, since the four points of reference can be easily established from the station by plunging the telescope. These points of reference are usually stakes driven flush, with a tack to mark each point, located at random, but in such a way that the intersection of the two lines will be sharp and definite. The stakes should, of course, be set where they are not likely to be disturbed, and each one should have a guard-stake. A scratch on a pavement or any other well-defined point that would answer for a transit station may be used for a reference-point in place of a stake. Marks on buildings, nails in fences, and similar points are often used where only a point of sight is needed.

212. Questions of Judgment. (1) What *limits of error* to adopt, i.e., how close to measure angles and distances. (2) *Where* to run transit lines, i.e., the general plan of transit lines. (3) *Method* of running transit lines: which one of the four to use. (4) *Method* of locating details: which is the best for any given case. (5) Method of keeping notes: which is the best adapted to the work in hand. These closely related questions are discussed in the succeeding articles.

213. Obstacles to Surveying often make it impossible to *do the* field work in the usual and most direct way, and render it necessary to adopt extreme precautions in order to obtain even an ordinary degree of accuracy. A line runs through a tree; a distance is wanted between two points, but a house-corner intervenes; points to be located are inaccessible. Obstacles such as these give rise to special problems in the use of the tape or the transit or both. They may also influence the surveyor in deciding some of the questions suggested in the preceding article. Problems of this kind which occur in chaining are explained in Chapter VII. Similar problems which arise in transit work are explained in Chapter XVIII.

214. The Purpose for which a Survey is Made is the first consideration governing the field work. It largely determines the methods used, the data required, the limits of error adopted, and the general plan of the field work.

Illustration. If a map is to be made, ask yourself what will it be used for, and to what scale will it be drawn? (See Art. 11, p. 6.) Are there any measurements which as a matter of record should be more accurate than the mere plotting of the map requires? (Art. 70, p. 44.) If work is being staked out, how will the stakes be used, and how close will the men who use them work?

215. The Relation between Field Work and Office Work is so close that questions which arise in the field can often be settled by the bearing which they have upon work in the office. When, for example, two or more methods of field work seem equally good, consider which will require the least office computation, or which is the best for plotting. To facilitate office work in this way, by forethought in planning field work, does not mean, however, that it always pays to do extra field work in order to save office work. Since the work of an entire transit party can often be plotted by one man an hour in the field for, say, three men may cost as much or more than three hours in the office for one man. Moreover, field work must often be done in a limited time and under favorable weather conditions, while the corresponding office work can be done more leisurely and regardless of the weather.

216. Where to Run Transit Lines Much depends upon the general plan of the transit lines, for they form the skeleton of a survey. While in general it is more important to plan carefully for a closed system of transit lines, especially if it is a complicated network, still even in a random survey which does not close unnecessary work may be saved, both in the field and in the office, by judiciously choosing the location of transit stations.

When possible, transit stations should be so chosen that the work of running transit lines, locating points of the survey, and plotting the map is reduced to a minimum. Before beginning a survey, go over the ground and note the most important features to be located. Place transit stations where they will be of the most use in locating those features. If the main purpose is to survey boundary-lines, then a transit line should run near each boundary (but not necessarily parallel to it). If buildings are to be located, plan to have stations near the buildings. Obstacles often prevent a surveyor from running his transit lines just where he would like to run them, but he can usually find some good way out of the difficulty.

See if the transit lines can be run readily. Changing a station a few feet one way or the other may save unnecessary field work or unnecessary work in plotting. Make a rough sketch of the transit lines and see if the system as a whole is well balanced. Are there any unnecessary stations? Are distances between stations too long or too short for accurate sighting? Are there any unnecessary obstacles to sighting or chaining? Half an hour spent in choosing transit stations may save hours of field work.

(*a*) *Illustration—Boundary Survey.* Fig. 216 (*a*) illustrates how field work and office work are affected by the location of transit lines. The lines 1-2-3-4-5-6-7-1 are boundary-lines, and the question is *where* to run the transit lines. They can be located in four different ways.

1. To *coincide* with the boundary-lines.
2. To form a reference *rectangle*, as *WXYZ*.
3. To form a polygon each side of which is *parallel* to and a short distance outside or inside a corresponding boundary-line. (This polygon is not shown in the figure.)
4. To form *any* convenient polygon, as *ABCDEFA*.

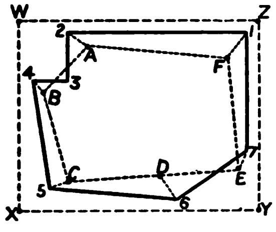

FIG. 216 (*a*).

(*b*) *Comparison of methods.* (1) The first method, theoretically ideal, is often impracticable because of existing fences and other obstacles. (2) The second method facilitates office work, but is often unsatisfactory or impracticable in the field. (3) The third method involves considerable extra field work in establishing each transit line parallel to the corresponding boundary-line. (4) The fourth method is the one most used. Its chief disadvantage is that neither the length of boundary-lines nor the angles at the corners are measured directly. They can be easily found, however, by computation, and if desired the lengths of the boundary-lines may be measured in addition.

Note. A fifth method sometimes used is discussed on p. 141.

(*c*) *The choice of stations* and its effect on field work and office work are further illustrated in the polygon *ABCDEFA*. Notice that station *B* was so chosen that *two* corners, 3 and 4, could be located from it, and that when the transit was at *C* station *D* and *E* were established "in line." In this way a five-sided polygon is made to answer in place of a seven-sided polygon, and a corresponding gain in both field work and office work is the result.

(*d*) *The relation between field work and office work* discussed on page 149 is illustrated by the third and fourth methods. Suppose that the lengths of the boundary-lines and the angles at the corners are required. If the fourth method is used, they must be computed. Is it worth while to save this extra office work by running parallel transit lines according to the third method? The computation involves finding one unknown side in each of seven polygons. For example, if the lengths and directions of the lines 2*A*, *AF*, and *F*1 are known, the length and direction of the missing side 1-2 can be computed. (See Part II.) In the polygon 1-*F*-*E*-7 the missing side 1-7 can be found in like manner. The direction of 1-2 and 1-7 having been determined, the angle 2-1-7 is easily found. The extra office work involved is not so much as at first appears, especially if the latitude and departure method is used for plotting. It should not exceed in this particular case more than two hours *for one man*. If the third or parallel-line method is used, the extra field work involved might easily amount to more than two hours *for an entire party*. In city work it often pays to run transit lines parallel to corresponding street lines, but with this exception the third method is not generally favored.

217. Methods of Running Transit Lines have already been compared in Chapter XII. No definite rule can be given for choosing the method best adapted to the work in hand, but if the advantages and disadvantages of each method as given on pp. 127 to 130 are understood, it is not a difficult matter to decide which to use. In general it may be said that for work in the city where accuracy is required and where the magnetic needle is often useless, one of the first two methods (angles or deflection angles) is used. Angles can then be measured by repetition or in series. In country surveying where local attraction does not exist to so great an extent, and where less accuracy is required, the azimuth method is often used, the magnetic needle furnishing an approximate check on the azimuths of the different lines. This method is also especially adapted to stadia and topographic surveying. On the other hand, when the transit-line angles of a survey must be measured by repetition or when the stations cannot be occupied in order, the azimuth method should not be used. The method of deflection angles is used in railway work and is a favorite with many engineers for other kinds of work. Its advantages are sometimes overestimated, especially as it is subject to about all the instrumental errors. The quadrant method has little to commend it. In extended surveys two methods are often combined. For example, in topographic surveys primary stations are often established by triangulation (a special case of the angle method), and from these controlling stations secondary transit lines are run by the azimuth method. (See chapter on *Topographi veying.*)

218. Suggestions for Running Transit Lines. W ever method of running transit lines is adopted, by tak few simple precautions the transitman can be reasonabl of avoiding serious mistakes. Instead of depending er upon his own care and vigilance he should adopt some m of procedure by which a mistake will become self-evide soon as it is made. This usually involves doing somethi a check that otherwise would be unnecessary, but the time required is trifling compared to the assurance th work is free from blunders. Indeed, with his mind th lieved from unnecessary strain, the transitman will u work more quickly and accurately than he otherwise wou

Precautions are taken for two reasons: (1) to insure racy and (2) to avoid actual mistakes or blunders. Sour error in manipulating the transit are pointed out on p. 96 corresponding precautions can be taken. Common mis in reading angles are pointed out in Chapter VIII and marized on p. 97. Two precautions in manipulation emphasized are: (1) After backsighting try turning the *gently* to make sure that the lower clamp is tight before t the foresight. (2) After backsighting take the foresight o next station at once, and leave the side shots until afterv The shorter the interval between backsight and foresigh less likely is the instrument to be disturbed.

Checks. A system of checks affords assurance that pı tions have not been in vain. There are two checks which be employed in any method of running transit lines: (1) netic bearings and (2) setting the vernier to see if a line s a given point that it should strike.

(1) Any angle may be roughly checked by the mag needle regardless of local attraction (unless the latter in the transit or about the person of the transitman), pro the bearings of both lines are read at the same station, i.e back bearing of one line and the forward bearing of the Where local attraction does not exist, however, it is bett calculate bearings in continuous form. (See p. 126.)

In this case make sure of some correct magnetic beari the beginning of the survey by reading the needle at eacl *of a line,* and assume this bearing as the basis of all calcu bearings (p. 126). In a closed survey the discrepancy between this assumed bearing and the calculated bearing of the same line is the error in the sum of the interior angles, an error which may also be detected by the check on p. 119.

(2) After measuring any important angle the vernier may be set at zero to see if the line of sight still strikes the backsight. In this way if the clamp has slipped or a wrong tangent-screw has been turned or the transit has been disturbed, the movement of the lower plate becomes evident. A slight deviation from the original backsight, due to inaccuracy in setting the vernier, is of course to be expected. The work will be facilitated if a permanent backsight is established.

When, in addition to the usual angle, side shots have been taken, before leaving the station the vernier may be set at the original angle reading to see if the line of sight strikes the *foresight.* This is a double check: (1) any movement of the lower plate while the side shots were being taken becomes evident, and (2) any mistake in the original angle reading is likely to be detected.

219. Methods of Procedure in Running Transit Lines. *Method of procedure* implies systematic precautions and checks, such as:

(1) Precautions in the manipulation of the transit, p. 95.
(2) Precautions in reading angles, p. 96.
(3) Precautions to eliminate instrumental errors of adjustment and of faulty graduation or construction, pp. 99–101.
(4) Precautions to prevent or forestall slight displacement of the transit.
(5) Checks to detect displacement of the instrument or mistakes in manipulation.
(6) Checks to detect mistakes in reading angles.

Any method of procedure may be used which accomplishes the desired result without waste of time, but it is wise to adopt some one method and stick to it, for then in many of the operations the mind will come to work automatically, which, in itself, is an efficient means of avoiding mistakes. It will be found necessary, however, to adopt different methods of procedure corresponding to the four methods of running transit lines.

Those suggested in this article are adapted to ordinary work where great precision is not required, and each method should be modified to suit conditions. When producing straight lines the best check is that furnished by the method of double reverse (p. 92).

Remark.—Surveyors differ as to minor details, but there is a general agreement as to the value of having a fixed method of procedure. Those outlined below are likely to seem somewhat intricate to the student, and hardly worth while following in all their details, but this is apt to be the case where any operation in the field is described in print. As a matter of fact the methods are simple, and after a little practice the extra steps taken as precautions or checks become instinctive. This book contains no better "pointer" for inexperienced transitmen than this: *Adopt some method of procedure well adapted to your work and stick to it in all its details;* it will save mistakes, relieve the mind of unnecessary strain, and inspire confidence in results.

Methods of procedure corresponding to different methods of running transit lines are given below. In each case the method of procedure indicates what the transitman actually does at any one station, from the time he has finished setting up the transit until he is ready to move to the next station. The extra steps taken as checks or precautions are indicated in italics to distinguish them from those that are absolutely necessary.

220. Method of Procedure for Direct-angle Method.

Suggestions. (1) Use a transit graduated clockwise from 0° to 360° and take all angles clockwise: saves confusion in reading and recording angles. (2) Invariably read the A vernier, consulting the B vernier, if at all, merely as a check: avoids mistakes of 180° in reading angles.

(*a*) METHOD OF PROCEDURE WHEN ANGLES ARE NOT DOUBLED. (1) Set the A vernier at 360°,—or, if at zero, *make sure that it is the zero corresponding to* 360°. (See p. 75.)

(2) Backsight; *glance to see if A vernier is still at zero; see if the back bearing agrees with the forward bearing.*

(3) *Test to see if clamps are tight;* foresight *immediately* on the next station before the transit is likely to be disturbed; *establish a permanent foresight.*

(4) Read and record the angles.

(5) *Read and record the forward bearing (from the needle).*

(6) *Calculate and record the forward bearing and see if it agrees with the magnetic bearing.*

(7) Take all side shots.

(8) *Set the vernier at the original angle reading and see if the line of sight strikes the permanent foresight.* (Double check.)

Comments. Instead of relying upon the needle for a check, the transit-line angle and any other important angle may be doubled: this is the surest check. If the extra time required for doubling angles is not warranted and it is desired to use the needle as a check, the azimuth method is better adapted to the purpose, provided stations can be occupied in regular order.

(*b*) METHOD OF PROCEDURE WHEN ANGLES ARE DOUBLED. The *first four steps* are the same as in the preceding method except that no attention is paid to the needle in backsighting, and a permanent *backsight* is established in (2) instead of a permanent *foresight* in (3).

(5) *Double the angle; record the double value, and see if it agrees with the single reading.*

(6) Set the A vernier at 360° again, backsight as before, and take all side shots.

(7) *Set the vernier at 360° to see if the line of sight strikes the backsight.*

221. Method of Procedure for Deflection-angle Method.

Suggestion. Use a transit graduated according to the quadrant method (see p. 75), and make sure that the line of collimation is in adjustment.

(*a*) METHOD OF PROCEDURE. (1) Set the A vernier at 0°; *glance at the B vernier to see that it is opposite* 180° (*and the corresponding* 0°).

(2) Backsight; *glance to see if the A vernier is still at* 0°; *see if back bearing agrees with forward bearing.*

(3) *Test to see if clamps are tight;* plunge; foresight *immediately* on the most important point, usually the next station; make a mental note whether the angle is "right" or "left"; *establish a permanent foresight.*

(4) Read the angle from the B vernier, *verifying the direction* (*right or left*) *previously noted;* record the angle, *making sure it is in the proper column "left" or "right."*

(5) *Read and record the magnetic bearing.*

(6) Calculate and record the forward bearing, and see if it agrees with the magnetic bearing.

(7) Take all side shots.

(8) *Set the B vernier at the original deflection angle and see if the line of sight strikes the permanent foresight.* (Double check.)

(*b*) *Additional suggestions.* (1) It makes no difference whether the telescope is normal or inverted when backsighting if the limb is graduated in quadrants (p. 75). When, however, the limb is graduated according to the half-circle method (p. 73) make it a point to have the telescope *inverted* when backsighting and *normal* when foresighting, so as to bring the *A* vernier under the eyepiece when reading angles (p. 73). In using such a transit a very valuable check is to observe and record both *A* and *B* vernier readings: their sum should always equal 180°.

(2) Some engineers double important angles instead of relying upon the needle. This also eliminates error in the line of collimation. (See p. 100.) In this case establish a permanent backsight in (2) instead of foresight in (3).

(3) When calculated bearings are kept the following check may be employed:

Check on the calculated bearings. Add all angles to the left; add all angles to the right; the difference of these two sums applied to the bearing of the first line should give the calculated bearing of the last line.

Illustration. 1-2 = N. 42° 18′ E. 2-3 = 16° 21′ (R.), 3-4 = 18° 20′ (L.), 4-5 = 28° 30′ (L.), 5-6 = 81° 19′ (R.), 6-7 = 8° 11′ (R.). Hence bearing of 6-7 = (16° 21′ + 81° 19′ + 8° 11′) − (18° 20′ + 28° 30′) = 59° 01′ to be applied to N. 42° 18′ E. Since 59° 01′ is R. (clockwise) it is added to N. 42° 18′ E. and the bearing of 6-7 is S. 78° 41′ E. Verify this bearing by calculating it in the usual way.

222. Method of Procedure for the Azimuth Method. *Suggestions.* Use a transit graduated clockwise from 0° to 360°, and invariably read the A vernier. As one advantage of this method is the ease with which azimuths are checked by the needle, make sure that the latter is in good working order, and that proper precautions are taken in getting the azimuth of the first line. (See p. 123.)

(*a*) METHOD OF PROCEDURE, FIRST AZIMUTH METHOD, p. 121. (1) *Glance at the vernier to see if it is still set at the forward azimuth;* plunge and backsight on the preceding station.

(2) *Test to see if the clamps are tight;* plunge; foresight on the next station; *establish a permanent foresight.*

Note. In these first two steps make it a point always to have the telescope *inverted* when backsighting and *normal* when foresighting.

(3) Read and record the azimuth; *check the azimuth by the needle reading, and record this magnetic bearing.*

(4) Take all side shots, *checking one now and then by glancing at the needle.*

(5) Set the vernier at the forward azimuth and *see if the line of sight strikes the permanent foresight.* If, as is usually the case, the line of sight is *slightly* off, say the width of the pole, bring it on with the UPPER tangent-screw, thus automatically setting the vernier for the next set-up. The vernier reading should still agree with the forward azimuth originally recorded.

(*b*) *Note.* The same system of checks may be used for the second azimuth method (p. 122). In the above method of procedure any movement of the lower plate occurring between the backsight and the first foresight to the next station would not be detected. The check for this would be to set the vernier at the azimuth of the preceding line, plunge and see if the line of sight strikes the backsight. This could be done immediately after foresighting on the next station, or it could be deferred until after the side shots were taken. When doubtful whether or not the transit has been oriented correctly, set the vernier at zero: the north end of the needle should point to N. This is only a rough check, but it will disclose any large error.

(*c*) *Note.* In beginning the survey it is necessary to decide which of the three methods to use in obtaining the azimuth of the first line. (See p. 124.) Unless a north-and-south meridian is chosen, the advantage derived from using the magnetic needle as a check is lost, and since in the ordinary survey it does not pay to establish a *true* north-and-south line by observation, a *magnetic* north-and-south line is the reference meridian most often used.

(*d*) THE METHOD OF PROCEDURE FOR THE QUADRANT METHOD (p. 125) is simply a modification of the method of procedure for the azimuth method, and will suggest itself after studying the preceding article.

223. Methods of Locating Details have been given in the preceding chapter. The two most used are the method *by angle and distance* and the method *of offsets,* but one of the *other five* methods can often be used to advantage. The accuracy required will frequently help to determine which method to employ. When, so far as accuracy is concerned, there seems to be no choice, it is usually a question of time. If, for example, the transitman is busy and the chainmen are not, it may save time to locate a point by some method which does not involve the measurement of angles. For the same reason, methods of locating details which save unnecessary "set-ups" of the transit are often used. (See p. 140.) Sometimes the surveyor is practically limited to one method, as, for example, in locating inaccessible points by angles (p. 137) or in locating irregular lines (such as river banks) by offsets (p. 139). Some obstacle to measurement or to the line of sight often compels the use of a method different from the one which would ordinarily be used, as, for example, in locating a point on the fence-line (p. 133). If the student will acquire a working knowledge of *all* the methods of locating details explained in the preceding chapter, he will soon learn by actual experience which method to chose in any given case.

In locating any detail select points which will best serve the purpose. Thus, for example, in locating a building choose a long side in preference to a short side, so that the corners located may be as far apart as possible.

Do not locate points unnecessarily. For example, do not locate both rails of a track, but take points on the gage-line of one rail, and make a note of the gage.* Sometimes it is better to locate the center-line of track, as is done in staking it out.

In filling in the details of a survey it is often a waste of time to take all measurements with equal accuracy. It is far better to keep in mind what each angle or distance will be used for, and measure it with corresponding accuracy. Measurements required solely for plotting may be taken, as a rule, with less precision than those needed for permanent record, and measurements taken to fix the position of an object are usually less important than measurements of the object itself. This is especially true if the scale of the map is small. Thus, for example, suppose that several buildings stand on a piece of land. The map will be plotted to a scale of 1 inch = 50 ft. An error of ½ ft. in the relative positions of the buildings will hardly show on the map. Measurements made solely for plotting the buildings and the corners of the boundaries could, therefore, be made to the nearest *foot*. On the other hand, if the dimensions of the buildings and the lengths of the boundary-lines are to be recorded on the map, or are to be preserved elsewhere as a matter of record, they should be measured with greater accuracy. Rough measurements will, of course, suffice for *indefinite* details, such as banks of streams or stone walls, and for *temporary* objects, such as walks and driveways.

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* The gage-line is a line on the inside of the rail ½" below the top.

Locating street-lines. In the larger cities it is customary to set stone monuments or *merestones* at street-corners, thus marking the intersection of street-lines. In small towns, however, and in country highways the surveyor must often depend upon existing fences or upon whatever information he can gather from old maps, old landmarks, and other sources. On the other hand it cannot be taken for granted that existing fences are on the street-lines, for it is a common experience to find that they are not.

Practical suggestions. (1) When a definite object such as a building is located, remember that the work is not completed until the object is "measured up," i.e., enough dimensions obtained to plot it. (2) If the two ends of a boundary-line are located, it is a good rule to measure the actual length of the line as a check and as a matter of record. (3) Transitman, note-keeper, and chainmen must all cooperate to prevent the too common mistake of measuring to one point of an object and then through carelessness taking the angle to some other point or *vice versa*. (4) A common mistake in note-keeping is to interchange the angles or the distances to two points so that the angle to one point and the distance to another point are recorded as if they were taken to the same point. (5) In measuring from a transit station to a number of near-by points it is well to have the zero end of the tape at the station. If the tape is not graduated to decimals of a foot throughout, but only the end foot is subdivided, the chainman who is not at the station will simply read the *whole* number of feet; the chainman at the station, pulling the tape taut, notes the decimal of a foot, and after subtracting one foot from the other chainman's reading, gives the final reading (p. 34). (6) In taking a large number of side shots, sight occasionally at the permanent backsight to see if the transit has been disturbed. (7) Keep in mind the relation between angular and linear measurement pointed out on p. 108. Thus, for example, one minute is equivalent to only 0.03 ft. at 100 ft. from the transit or 0.3 ft at 1000 ft.; likewise one inch at a distance of 100 ft. from the transit may cause an angular error of 3 minutes, while at 1000 ft. an inch is equivalent to only 15 seconds (p. 105).

Question. If a corner of a building is, say, 50 ft. from a transit and the building is to be plotted to a scale of 1″ = 100 ft., can the angle to the corner be read from the limb with sufficient accuracy for plotting, ignoring the vernier reading?

224. Staking Out Work, i.e., setting stakes for construction, is the reverse of locating objects which already exist; hence much that applies to the location of details applies to this kind of work also. The chief difficulty that the young surveyor encounters is in knowing what stakes will be needed by the contractor. This knowledge is best gained from long experience, from conversations with foremen, and from actual observation of what is actually needed in various lines of construction. Each piece of work is a problem in itself, but a few general suggestions may be given which apply to nearly all kinds of work. In Chapter XVII a number of examples of special work in staking out buildings, roads, bridge piers, and other objects show how these suggestions are carried out in practice.

General suggestions. (1) It is better to give a few points which will determine the main lines of a structure than to give so many points that they are likely to be confused; hence do not give lines which the foreman can easily establish for himself.

(2) Where excavation is required it is often best to give lines *roughly* at first for digging,—more accurately afterwards. (Art. 265, p. 208.)

(3) Set stakes where they are least likely to be disturbed during construction, yet near enough to the object so that they are convenient for use.

(4) For buildings, masonry structures, and certain other kinds of work where elevations as well as lines are required, batter-boards are used in place of stakes. (See Art. 265, p. 208.)

(5) Any important point which, if destroyed during construction, could not be re-established readily should be referenced (p. 148). This may often be done by setting nails or marking points where lines prolonged strike neighboring fences or buildings. (See Fig. 266 (*a*), p. 210.)

(6) So far as possible follow a uniform system of giving points, even for different contractors: saves confusion in the office and in the field. Thus, for example, in staking out a long retaining-wall, do not set stakes a certain distance in *front* of a neat line at one place and *back* of it at some other place, but, if possible, set stakes at the same distance on the same side of the same neat line throughout the length of the wall.

(7) So plan the location of stakes and points that no serious delay will follow if one here and there is knocked out or covered up, or rendered useless for purposes of sighting by intervening piles of material. One method of accomplishing this is to plan for at least two different ways of arriving at or locating each important point. In large works of construction such a plan is of great advantage, and saves work which would otherwise be necessary in referencing points.

(8) A sketch in the field notes should show the location of all important stakes and reference points so clearly that they can be found and used by a surveyor who did not see them set.

(9) Have some good system of marking the stakes themselves, one readily understood by the contractor. Suggestions for marking grade-stakes will be found in the chapter on *Leveling,—Field Work.*

225. Field Notes. In the next chapter some of the forms of field notes used in transit surveying are given, and the different methods of keeping notes are discussed. It is not so important *which* method is used as it is essential that the notes be clear and self-explaining, so that any intelligent draftsman can plot them. There is little excuse for notes so obscure and confused that only the man who took them can understand them.

226. Errors and Limits of Error. To come within a given limit of error in transit surveying both linear and angular errors must be under control within fixed limits. The most important points brought out in the discussion of errors (Chapters II, V, and X) may be summarized as follows:

1. The true error of any measurement is never known, but it can be estimated from the discrepancy between duplicate measurements or from *probable errors.* The more completely constant errors are eliminated the more nearly can the precision of the work be estimated.

2. Accidental or compensating errors, as a rule, are less important than constant or cumulative errors.

3. Not only should the methods of eliminating or correcting errors from different sources be understood, but the relative importance of the errors should be known also. (Art. 69, p. 43.)

4. Field-work requirements corresponding to the adopted limit of error should be kept in mind. (Art. 76, p. 51.)

5. Consistent accuracy implies the correlation of linear and angular errors. (Art. 152, p. 109.)

6. Customary limits of error should be adopted so far as the conditions governing a survey will permit. (p. 46 and p. 103.)

7. Not all the work of a survey is done with the same precision. For example, an error in the transit lines affects the whole survey, while an error in locating a detail may only affect a single point; hence the greater need of precision in running transit lines. *Make the accuracy of each step in the field work correspond to its importance.*

8. Limits of error should not be followed blindly. The best surveyor is not he who does all his work with great precision, but he who does it just accurately enough for the purpose without waste of time and money.

227. Permissible Error of Closure. (See Art. 176, p. 119, for definition.) Let l = the difference between the sums of the north and south latitudes, and d the difference between the sums of the east and west departures, found by the methods explained in the chapter on *Latitudes and Departures*, Part II; then the error of closure $E=\sqrt{l^2+d^2}$. This error is usually expressed as a ratio $\frac{E}{P}$, where P is the total length of the perimeter. For ordinary transit work this ratio should seldom be more than 1:1000, and in city work should average not less than 1:5000. In some cities the limit is from 1:10 000 to 1:15 000 for precise traverses with repeated angles. This is probably as high a degree of precision as should be required in traverses run with a transit and steel tape.

A general formula may be derived as follows: Let
N = number of sides to the polygon, also number of interior angles;
c = coefficient of chaining adopted for one tape-length;
E_c = that part of the error of closure due to chaining;
E_a = " " " " " " " " " angular measurement;
t = length of tape;
a = permissible error in one angle.

From Art. 71, p. 45,

$$E_c = c\sqrt{N} = c\sqrt{\frac{P}{t}}. \quad \ldots \ldots \ldots \quad (1)$$

The error for any one side due to angular measurement will be proportional to the length of that side and hence for the whole perimeter it will be the total angular error times the length of the perimeter. But from p. 110 the total error in the sum of the interior angles may be expected to be $a\sqrt{N}$; hence $E_a = a\sqrt{N} \times P$. Since an angular error of one minute = 0.0003 ft.,

$$E_a = 0.0003aP\sqrt{N}. \quad \ldots \ldots \ldots \quad (2)$$

The error from the combined sources from the theory of errors may be the square root of the sum of the squares of the separate probable errors, p. 18; hence

$$E = \sqrt{(0.0003aP)^2 N + c^2\frac{P}{t}}. \quad \ldots \ldots \quad (3)$$

In ordinary chaining the second term under the radical is so small that it may be ignored and formula (3) then reduces back to formula (2), in which form it is usually used.

$$E = 0.0003aP\sqrt{N}. \quad \ldots \ldots \ldots \quad (4)$$

Illustration. Suppose that the permissible error for one angle is 15" or ¼ minute; that the total length of the perimeter of a ten-sided polygon is 4000 ft. The error of closure should not exceed

$$0.0003 \times \tfrac{1}{4} \times 4000 \times \sqrt{10} = .95 \text{ ft.}$$

228. The Duties of the Different Members of a Transit Party depend upon the number of men in the party. In class work, if the party is composed of five men the duties may be outlined as follows:

THE CHIEF OF PARTY plans the survey and directs the field work. Oftentimes in addition he acts as transitman or as note-keeper. He should thoroughly understand the advantages and disadvantages of the different methods of running transit lines (Chapter XII and Art. 217), and be able to choose wisely between the different methods of locating details (Chapter XIII and Art. 223). He should be familiar with the customary limits of error, and with the sources and relative importance of errors (Chapters II, V, and X; also Art. 226). In class work the instructor necessarily decides most of the questions which are suggested above, but he should discuss with the students the reasons which influence him in his decisions.

1. THE NOTE-KEEPER often acts as chief of party, and in addition to directing the field work keeps the field notes in the party note-book. During the early part of the course *he should also read each angle as a check on the work of the transitman.* Read Chapter III for general directions and consult Chapter XV for the different forms of transit notes. Pay particular

attention to *Special Directions for Class Work*, p. 30. T position of note-keeper is a responsible one, and upon his ale ness and his ability to keep good notes will depend to a la extent the value of the work done by the whole party.

2. THE TRANSITMAN is responsible for all work done w the transit; also responsible for any injury done to the inst ment either while in use or while being carried from one pl to another. *The transitman must not leave the transit stand* *unguarded.* The use of the transit is explained in Chapter I Particular attention is called to the following articles:

1. *Caution*—to prevent injury to the transit, p. 84.
2. *Use of the Telescope*—focusing eyepiece, getting line of sight quic etc., p. 85.
3. *Setting up the Transit*—hints for setting up *quickly*, pp. 86–89.
4. *Use of Clamps*—warning against using wrong clamps, p 91.
5. *Method of Double Reverse*—to prolong a straight line accurat p. 92.
6. *Lining In*—sighting chainmen or flagman in line, *setting transit* s tions, p. 91.
7. *Measuring Horizontal Angles*—different methods, pp. 93–95. I particular attention to hint 6, p. 95.
8. *Measuring Angles by Repetition*—especially doubling an angle, p.
9. *Reading Angles*—use of vernier and common mistakes, pp. 96–97.
10. *Reading Bearings*, p. 101.
11. *The Sources and Relative Importance of Errors in Angular Measu ments* (Chapter X).
12. *Suggestions for Running Transit Lines*—precautions and chec p. 152.
13. *Methods of Procedure in Running Transit Lines*—to avoid blund p. 153.
14. *Care and Adjustment of the Transit* (Part III).

3 and 4. THE CHAINMEN are responsible for the measureme of all distances. In addition they may be called upon to gi sights, drive stakes, assist in setting up the transit, and help in other ways to carry on the field work. They are also he responsible for any injury to the tape. Directions for chaini are given in Chapter IV. Special attention is called to the f lowing articles:

1. *Care of the Steel Tape*—to prevent bends, breaks, and rust, p. 31.
2. *To Do Up and Undo a Tape*—in a figure 8, p. 31.
3. *General Method of Chaining*—p. 33.
4. Precautions to avoid error in reading odd feet and tenths of fe note (*c*), p. 34.
5. *Setting Chain-pins*—directions to insure accuracy, p. 35.
6. *Chaining on a Slope*—especially the second method, p. 36.
7. *Sources of Error*, methods of correction and elimination, Chapter especially the rule for the correction of errors in the length of the ta p. 40, and the correction for temperature, p. 40.
8. *Relative Importance of Sources of Error*—p. 43.
9. *Customary Limits of Precision*, and the field-work requirements c responding to different limits, pp. 44–53.
10. *Summary*—of things which the chainmen should do and should n *do, p. 37.*

5. **The Axeman or Flagman** drives the stakes for transit stations, marks the guard-stakes and sets them, holds the transit-pole or pencil for backsights and foresights, and clears the way through underbrush, when necessary, for the line of sight.

1. For the method of establishing a transit station, read Art. 207, p. 146.
2. For the method of marking and setting a guard-stake, read Art. 208, p. 147.
3. In holding a transit pole be sure that it is *plumb*. Stand squarely behind it, and using both hands, suspend it so that it will swing freely until it becomes plumb, then keep it there. Oftentimes the vertical edge of a building or some other fixed vertical line will aid in keeping the pole plumb.
4. There is a knack in driving a stake plumb; acquire it. Use a broad flat-headed hand-axe, and strike squarely to prevent brooming. When a stake begins to get out of plumb do not bring it back by striking one side of it, but "draw" it over by striking it on the head with a peculiar blow, in which the axe-head moves towards the body as it hits the stake; if the stake is not too far down, pull it over with one hand while using the axe with the other.

Remark. Surveyors complain that axemen are either careless in driving stakes or that they do not know how—a constant source of annoyance.

5. If a backsight or foresight is wanted at a station where another transit is set up, hold a handkerchief behind the plumb-bob line, keep the bob from swinging, and see to it that members of the other party are not in the line of sight. Another way of giving a sight in such a case is to hold a pencil on top of the center of the transit telescope.
6. Do not "come in" from giving a sight until signaled to do so. Have a clear understanding in regard to signals, p. 146.

CHAPTER XV

TRANSIT SURVEYING—FIELD NOTES

IN the first part of this chapter three general methods of keeping the field notes for a transit survey are discussed, and those things which are essential to good transit notes in any form are pointed out. In the second part of the chapter several methods of keeping notes are illustrated by reproductions of actual field notes. A study of these notes should also result in a clearer idea of how the methods of running transit lines (Chapter XII) and of locating details (Chapter XIII) are applied in actual field work. The comments accompanying the illustrations are intended to lead the student to a comparison of the different methods of field work and of keeping notes, so that ultimately he will be better prepared to choose methods for himself, modify them, combine them, or devise new ones especially adapted to any work he may have in hand.

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229. Different Methods of Keeping Field Notes. There are many forms of field notes in common use, some adapted to one kind of field work, others to other kinds. The best method of keeping notes for a given piece of work is a matter of opinion, and an experienced surveyor is likely to use his own method,—one which is "the survival of the fittest." Any system may be used which results in a clear and accurate record of the field work without wasting time. A form of notes, however, which saves time in the field but wastes it when it comes to plotting is not, ordinarily, an economical form to use, although occasionally it may be.

It is well to use a system which can be modified to suit different methods of field work. Thus, for example, in the second part of this chapter there is given a form of notes which not only can be adapted to any one of the four methods of running transit lines, but which can also be easily modified to suit different kinds of surveys, such as a stadia survey, a compass survey, or a transit survey. Having once become familiar with some such method of keeping notes, it is an easy matter to adapt oneself to any other method when it becomes necessary.

230. Notes Pertaining to the Transit Lines should be distinguished from all other notes because the transit lines are usually plotted first and details afterward. The field notes may be divided into two parts, viz.: (1) those pertaining to the location of transit stations, and (2) those pertaining to all other points. When transit lines are run before details are taken (Art. 193, p. 132) transit-line notes may be kept by themselves in compact form. When, however, details are taken as fast as transit stations are established the transit-line notes are not kept separate, but are scattered along mixed with other notes. In that case the notes should be kept in such a way that those pertaining to the transit line can be picked out without any trouble when it comes to plotting. One way is to *letter* all transit stations and *number* all other points. Another way is to enclose transit stations in a triangle or circle. Still another way is to keep transit-line notes in a separate column by themselves. (See Form 3, p. 172.)

231. Three General Forms of Notes. There are two methods of keeping notes which are radically different, viz.: (1) The method in which *all* measurements of angles and distances are *indicated on a sketch;* (2) The method in which no sketch is used, but measurements are recorded in some tabular form. The latter method can be used only where comparatively little description of the survey and its details is necessary. (3) A *third* method is a combination of the other two in which some of the data are recorded on a *sketch*, and the remaining data are *tabulated*. This combination method is, perhaps, the one most used.

232. The Tabulated Form of Notes without a Sketch can be used to advantage for transit-line notes when kept by themselves, or for recording a number of measurements to points or objects, all of which can be described just as well without a sketch. In most cases, however, a sketch is the easiest way of making clear the details of a survey. A number of tabulated forms are illustrated in Art. 241, pp. 169–175.

233. The Sketch Method for Field Notes. When it can be done without crowding, there is probably no better way of keeping field notes than by making a free-hand sketch with all angles and distances entered directly upon the sketch. The difficulty with this method is that a sketch made on the page of an ordinary field note-book will often be too small to provide for all the measurements in large, clear figures. In that case it is better to resort to the *combination* method.

It is not customary to draw the sketch to scale; indeed it is usually necessary to exaggerate certain portions of it to make room for recording measurements. In some forms of notes no attempt is made to sketch outlines as they appear on the ground. For example, a crooked highway appears in the sketch as perfectly straight. (See Illustration VI, p. 187.)

234. The Combination Method of Keeping Field Notes, in the opinion of many surveyors, is the best all-around method. A sketch can be made on one page and such measurements as cannot conveniently be placed on the sketch itself can be recorded on the opposite page in some one of the tabulated forms in common use. As far as possible it is well to put actual dimensions and offsets on the sketch, while angles and the corresponding distances used for locating points are put on the opposite page. For example, if a house is shown in the sketch it is usually well to put dimensions of the house on the sketch itself, while angles and distances taken to locate the corners of the house are given on the opposite page. (See Illustration III, p. 180.)

Points on the sketch are *numbered* or *lettered* when it is necessary to refer to them in the tabulated form on the opposite page. When it can be done readily it is well to number points *in order;* for example, the first one sighted at as the telescope is turned from the backsight is 1, the next 2, and so on. (See p. 134.)

235. When should the Notes Read from the Bottom of the Page up? In railway surveys or highway surveys or surveys of a similar character it is more convenient to record the notes *from the bottom of the page up.* This is especially true if the *sketch* method is used, otherwise the note-book must be held upside down to bring the points in the sketch in accord with the points which they represent on the ground. The general rule in making a sketch is to hold the book with its top toward the next transit station, and if a tabulated form on the left-hand page is used in connection with the sketch, this will read from the bottom *up* to correspond. (See Illustration V, p. 184.) On the other hand, in the notes of a closed survey, where the entire sketch is on one page, it may be more convenient to tabulate the corresponding notes on the opposite page, so that they will read from the top *down*. (See Illustration I, p. 176.)

236. What should the Field Notes Include? In taking notes it is well to keep in mind (1) what will be needed for plotting, and (2) what it may be well to have in the note-book even though it may not be necessary for plotting. Measurements of angles and distances, sketches and explanatory notes are of use in plotting, while the date of the survey, names of the men in the party, transit used, weather conditions, and notes indicating methods of work may be of value as a mere matter of record. Common sense should guide one in this.

In ordinary work, for example, the temperature is not recorded because there is no need of it, but in precise surveying it *is* recorded because corrections for temperature are to be made. A note which gives the methods used in a survey may indicate the limits of error, and if there is a chance that such information will be needed, it should be given in the notes, but in the majority of cases it will not be needed. On the other hand the title of the survey, the date, and the name of the man in charge of the party ought to appear in the notes of every survey.

237. Allow Plenty of Room; do not Crowd the Notes. Make sketches larger if anything than may seem necessary. Usually there will be more dimensions to put on the sketch than will at first appear; make a generous allowance for this. Especially those portions of a sketch where most of the measurements are to be shown should be large and open so that small crowded figures may be avoided. Buildings, for example, should be sketched large enough to provide for dimensions. If a fence is located by offsets from a building, make the fence in the sketch far enough away so that the offsets may be recorded in clear figures, no matter how near to the building the fence really is. Do not try to put too much on one page; use several pages if necessary for different parts of a sketch. *Note-book paper is cheap compared with time wasted in deciphering crowded notes.*

In tabulated forms it is better to skip every other line when there is room, thus leaving space for corrections.

238. Repeating Notes on Different Pages. When tabulated notes extend over two or more pages it is customary to repeat on one page enough of the notes from the preceding page to make the whole continuous. Usually this means simply to copy the preceding transit station (number or letter) and, perhaps, a transit-line angle and distance.

239. General Sketch of Transit Lines. When a survey is more or less extended and the transit-line notes are scattered through several pages, it is a good plan to start a sketch of all the transit lines on one of the first pages. This sketch, which should be completed as fast as the field work progresses, will show the relative positions of the different transit stations and will prove especially useful if there is a more or less intricate network of transit lines. It is not necessary to enter any measurements on this sketch at least until the notes are "worked up" preliminary to plotting.

240. Five Things to Make Clear in any Form of Transit Notes.

Linear Measurements. (1) Between which two points each measurement was taken.

Angles. (2) At which station the transit stood when an angle was measured.

(3) Which station or point was used for a backsight.

(4) In which direction (right or left) the angle was measured.

(5) To which point as a foresight the angle was taken.

Illustration. A point 2 in a transit survey was located from a transit line *AB* by an angle of 45° and a distance of 30 feet. In order to plot the point 2 the notes must make clear whether the angle was taken at *A* or at *B*. If taken at *B*, then *A* must be entered as a *backsight*, the *direction* in which the angle was measured must be understood, and finally 2 must be recorded as a *foresight*. Should the notes fail to make clear any one of these points, a serious mistake might be made, as illustrated in Art. 167, p. 117. It is especially irritating to find an angle or distance given in the notes and yet not be able to plot it.

If the sketch method is used and all distances and angles are indicated on the sketch exactly where they belong (see Illustration IV, p. 183), misunderstandings are not likely to occur in plotting—a strong argument in favor of the sketch method. In all tabulated forms the five points noted above must be made clear by the column-headings, by the system of notation, and by explanatory notes and sketches, if necessary.

In an office where the methods of keeping notes and of taking angles are always the same, much in the notes may be taken *for granted.* For example, if it is customary to measure all angles clockwise, it is not necessary to record the direction in which angles are measured. It is well, however, to print once for all, near the beginning of a set of notes, some such note as: "*All angles taken to the right from a backsight on the preceding station.*" (See Illustration I, p. 176.)

Suggestions. In order to make sure that everything in the notes is clear and unmistakable try to put yourself in the position of a man in the office who is not at all familiar with the ground covered by the survey, and as you take the notes examine them critically from his point of view, keeping in mind what the notes will be used for and asking yourself continually the question: "Will this be clear to the man in the office?" Even though you expect to plot the notes yourself, remember that things which seem perfectly clear to you while you are recording the notes may become very obscure and indefinite by the time you begin plotting them. It is a poor note-keeper who can plot his notes only "while they are hot."

Reread, from time to time, the general suggestions for keeping notes given in Chapter III.

Study the forms of field notes given in the next article, noting the advantages and disadvantages of each method. Study also the actual field notes reproduced on pages 175–189, noting carefully all the little devices and methods for making the notes clear and unmistakable. The best way to study these notes is to plot them. (See p. 175.)

241. Different Forms of Tabulated Field Notes. When the usual form of field note-book is used it is customary to keep the tabulated notes on the left-hand page, which is ruled in six columns for that purpose. Sketches, if there are any, are made on the right-hand page, which is cross-lined and can be used as plotting-paper if desired. Several of the forms for tabulating notes are given here. In most cases each form would be accompanied by an explanatory sketch on the opposite page, but for the present these sketches are omitted. The column headings and two or three lines of notes for each form will illustrate the different methods. The style of lettering used in these illustrations and in the reproductions of the field notes which follow is the free-hand single-stroke system explained on pages 24–30. Those forms which read from the top of the page down may easily be modified to read upward if desired.

FORM 1

Angle	Value	Line	Length		
BCD	89°29′	CD	280.1		
BC2	112°14′	C2	83.8		
		3–4	40.0		

Interpretation. Backsight at Station B, transit at Station C, foresight at Station D, angle $=89°\ 29'$, and distance from C to $D=280'.1$. Same backsight, same transit station, the angle to some point 2 (not a transit station) is 112° 14′, distance from C to $2=83'.8$. No angles taken to points 3 and 4, distance between them is 40′.0. In this instance *letters* are used for transit stations, numerals for all other points. Corresponding letters and numerals on a sketch (not shown here) on the opposite page of the note-book complete the notes. All angles are taken to the right. For a more complete illustration see Illustration I, p. 176.

Advantages. A simple and natural method of tabulating angles and distances. Easy to use in the field and not likely to be misunderstood in plotting. When a system of transit lines is established first, and objects located afterward, this form is a very good one for the transit-line notes, especially if there is a network of transit lines.

Disadvantages. The method of giving an angle is not self-explaining. A note should make clear once for all that the middle letter is the vertex, the first letter the backsight, and the last letter the foresight. This order is easily remembered since the backsight (first letter) is the *first* point sighted at, and the foresight (last letter) is the *last* point sighted at in measuring an angle. When stations are numbered instead of lettered the method may become cumbersome, especially if there are *plus* stations. It would be awkward, for example, to give an angle thus: (21+14) (24+30) (30+25).

FORM 2

Transit at		*Sta. C,*	*backsight*	*on Sta. B*	
Foresight	*Angle*	*Line*	*Length*		
D	*89° 29'*	*CD*	*280.1*		
2	*112° 14'*	*C2*	*83.8*		
		3-4	*40.0*		

Interpretation. This form differs from the preceding form in only one particular: the station at which the transit stood and the backsight are noted once for all at the head of each set of angles. The third column can be and often is omitted.

When magnetic and calculated bearings are kept the last two columns may be used for that purpose, as shown on p. 174. As in the preceding method it should be noted that all angles are taken clockwise from the backsight. Should it be desired to take angles right and left, two columns headed "Right" and "Left" respectively may replace the single column shown (see p. 173), or else R or L may be written after each angle.

Advantages. When a number of angles are taken at each station this form has, in addition to the advantages of the preceding form, the merit of being self-explaining: no doubt can arise as to which station is the backsight, which the vertex, and which the foresight. Moreover, the form can be used for plus stations. This form, or some modification of it, is a very common one. It is especially useful in topographic surveying, where a large number of side shots are taken at each station, and where vertical angles are measured. By omitting the third column three columns are available for recording vertical angles and corrected elevations or distances.

Disadvantages. When only one or two angles are taken at each station it becomes necessary to reprint the words "*Transit at Sta.* —, *backsight on Sta.* —," on almost every other line. In that case Form 1 is more compact and convenient.

Form 3

Angle	Distance	Transit Line	Angle	Distance	
		△ Sta. D 280.1			
4=310°18'	44.6	89° 29'	1=40°30'	28.1	
3=211°11'	40.3	△ Sta. C 320.1	2=112°14'	83.8	
		108°12'			
		△ Sta. B 510.6			

Interpretation. The notes are to be read from the bottom up. All notes pertaining to the transit line are put in a column by themselves, each *distance* inserted *between the two stations* where it was measured, each *angle* directly *over the station* where the transit stood when the angle was taken, the backsight being the preceding station *below*, the foresight the next station *above*, thus: Backsight at Sta. *B*, transit at Sta. *C*, foresight on Sta. *D*, angle = 89° 29′, distance from *C* to *D* = 280′.1.

All points that are not transit stations are clustered around the station at which the transit stood when they were located. Thus points 1, 2, 3, and 4 were located by angles taken at *C* from the same backsight on *B*, and by distances measured from *C*. An explanatory sketch on the opposite page is implied in this case.

Remark. Assuming that all angles were measured clockwise, the angle 40° 30′ indicates that point 1 is on the *left* of the line *CD*. It would be an improvement, therefore, to enter 40° 30′ and 23.1 ft. in the *left-hand* columns; then, to be consistent, the measurements corresponding to the points 2, 3, and 4 should be entered in the *right-hand* columns. This would be the relative positions of the four points if the measurements were placed directly on a sketch. (See Illustration VI, p. 187.)

Advantages. Transit-line notes are *separate* from other notes. In a survey progressing in one general direction, as, for example, the survey of a highway, this form is useful, especially if combined with a sketch (as in Illustration VI, p. 187).

Disadvantages. Notes are not self-explaining, more or less complicated, and not adapted to surveys where only one or two points are located from each station.

FORM 4

Angle	Value	Line	Length	Bearing	
				Mag.	Cal.
	2)198°44′				
CDE	99°22′	DE	410.8	N26°30′E	26°24
	2)148°53′				
DEF	74°26′30″	EF	328.5	N79°15′W	79°9′30″

Interpretation. This form is a modification of Form 1. Two additional columns provide for magnetic and calculated bearings. Thus, N. 26° 30′ E. and N. 26° 24′ E. are the bearings of the line *DE*. The notes indicate that the angles were doubled by repetition, every other line being left blank to provide space for the arithmetical work of division. Notes read downward.

The *advantages* and *disadvantages* are the same as for Form 1.

FORM 5. DEFLECTION ANGLES

Sta.	Deflection		Line to	Length	
	Left	Right			
E	56°24		F	379.4	
E		41°18′	1	38.3	
D	28°10′		E	220.6	

Interpretation. One of the forms used when *deflection* angles are taken to the left or right. Notes read from the bottom up. For example, backsight at *D*, transit at *E*, deflection angle to the right of 41° 18′ to point 1, distance from *E* to 1 = 38′.3.

Advantages. Right and left deflection angles are in separate columns.

Disadvantages. If the transit stands at any station (as *E*), it is assumed that the backsight is on the preceding station below (as *D*). This is not self-evident from the notes; it is, however, so well understood in practice that the disadvantage is not a serious one. The mistake most likely to occur in using this form of notes is that of entering an angle in the "Left" column when it should be in the "Right" column, or *vice versa.*

FORM 6. DEFLECTION ANGLES

Station Occupied	Point Sighted at	Deflection Angle	Distance	Bearing	
				Mag.	Cal.
+20.6	a	41°18'L	38.3		
+20.6	36	56°24'R		N36°30'E	36° 25'
32.	32+20.6	28°10'L		N20°0'W	19°59'
30	32	12°11'R		N8°15'E	8°11'

Interpretation. This form is similar to the preceding form, except that deflection angles are kept in one column instead of in separate columns, the letters L and R denoting whether they are taken to the left or to the right. Notes read upward.

Advantage. A column is saved for some other purpose. Thus, for example, two columns are left in which magnetic and calculated bearings may be entered separately if desired.

Disadvantage. If the letter R or L is omitted in any case it may cause trouble in plotting. This is more likely to occur than the mistake of entering the angle in the wrong column, in the preceding form.

FORM 7. AZIMUTHS

Line	Azimuth	Length	Mag.		
CD	190°10'	281.6	S10°15'W		
DE	280°48'	310.8	N79°15'W		
D2	291°18'	28.9			

Interpretation. This form is a modification of Form 1, p. 170, azimuths being recorded in place of angles. Magnetic bearings are also recorded as a rough check on the azimuths.

When many azimuths are to be recorded at each station a modification of Form 2, p. 171, may be used, the words "Transit at Sta. —" being placed above each set of azimuths. Backsights, *of course, are not* recorded in the notes.

Advantages. This form of notes is so simple and self-explaining that it (or some slight modification of it) is in general use for the azimuth method. It is especially useful for stadia notes when a large number of points are to be located.

FORM 8. BEARINGS

The form used for notes when transit lines are run by bearings (p. 125) may be a modification of Form 7, simply substituting a column of bearings as read from the vernier for the column of azimuths, and keeping the other three columns as they are.

242. Illustrations of Field Notes In the following pages several sets of field notes are given; they illustrate not only different methods of keeping field notes, but also different methods of field work. The size of a page in the ordinary field note-book is about an inch wider and two inches longer than a page of this book.* Hence the notes are shown correspondingly reduced, but in other respects they are like the original field notes. They should be studied from two points of view: (1) To see how the methods of Chapter XII and XIII for running transit lines and locating objects are applied in actual field work; (2) To gain a clearer idea of how field notes are kept.

The student is urged to study the notes and comments in the order in which they are given and with unusual care. They have been chosen and arranged with the hope that this may prove one of the most useful portions of the book. It must be borne in mind, however, that for every method of running a transit line or locating a point given in the notes there is probably another method equally good which could have been used instead. Moreover, the methods shown of keeping notes can be and are modified and changed to suit the work in hand, and the remarks in Art. 229, p. 164, should be kept in mind.

It is suggested that a most effective way of studying the different illustrations is to actually plot the notes. If this can be done before going into the field it will be of great assistance to the student not only in keeping notes, but in choosing methods for locating details.

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* *Note-books* can be obtained in various sizes and ruled in various ways for different kinds of work Thus, for example, books may be obtained for topographic surveying with the right-hand page specially ruled to facilitate sketching the topography. The ruling is purposely omitted in the reproductions of field notes shown in the succeeding pages of this chapter.

It sometimes happens that notes taken in the field must be sent to the office from day to day to be plotted, while the party still remains at work in the field. Duplicate notes are usually copied in this case. To avoid the work of copying, special note-books with detachable leaves are sometimes used, carbon paper being inserted in order to obtain the duplicate sheets required for the office.

ILLUSTRATION I

18 Angle	Value	Line	Length	Mag.	
ABC	101°05'	BC	376.9	N 9°15'E	
AB2	152°51'	B2	11.4		
BCD	73°47'	CD	338.3		
BC3	235°42'	C3	27.1 ~~127.1~~		101°05' 73°47'.
CDA	96°47'	DA	339.8		96°47'
CD4	207°29'	D4	43.3		88°21'
DAB	88°21'	AB	274.2	Check→	360°00'
DA1	312°21'	A1	8.1		

All angles to the right from a backsight on preceding station.

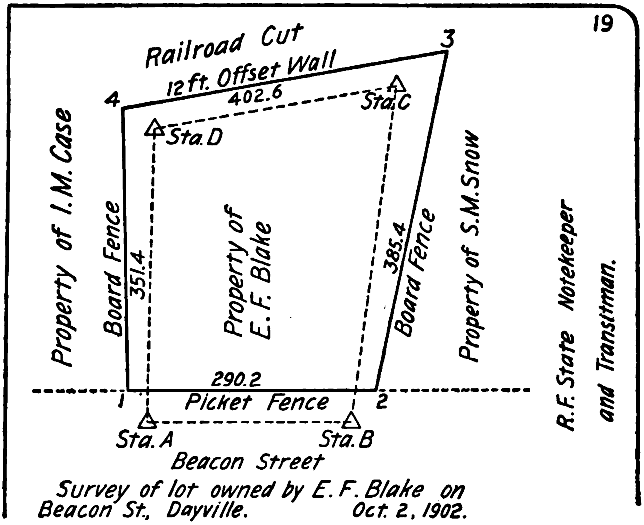
ILLUSTRATION I

Comments on the Survey. This is an illustration of a survey to determine the boundary-lines of a building lot. Transit lines are run at random within a few feet of the fence-lines, but not parallel to them. There are four transit stations, and each corner of the lot is located from the nearest station by angle and distance. Notice that in addition to transit-line measurements the length of each boundary-line was also measured, although a map of the lot could have been plotted without these four measurements. The four angles at the corners of the lot were not measured,—they can be easily calculated. See Art. 216 (*d*), p. 151.

Since angles were not doubled there was apparently no check on the work until the last or closing angle was measured. It would have been well to calculate bearings and check them by magnetic bearings (p. 126).

While the survey is complete in itself no one line seems to be referenced with respect to permanent objects, so that if any three of the four corners should become obliterated it would be *difficult to restore* them. (See Art. 260.)

ILLUSTRATION I



Comments on the Notes. All data pertaining to transit lines and to the location of corners from transit lines are tabulated on the left-hand page, according to Form 1, page 170. Actual dimensions, i.e., *lengths* of property lines, are given on the sketch on the right-hand page. In this survey the data are so few that they all could have been put on the sketch without crowding, and hence the sketch method (see the next illustration) would have been the natural one to use. Notice the method of correcting the false entry of 127.1 ft. [See p. 22, Art. 35 (5).]

It would have been well to add a note indicating the degree of accuracy with which the survey was made, as was done in the next illustration.

If any future use is likely to be made of the magnetic bearing, the declination of the needle should be given in the notes if it is not already on record in the office; in any case it should be given on the map.

ILLUSTRATION II

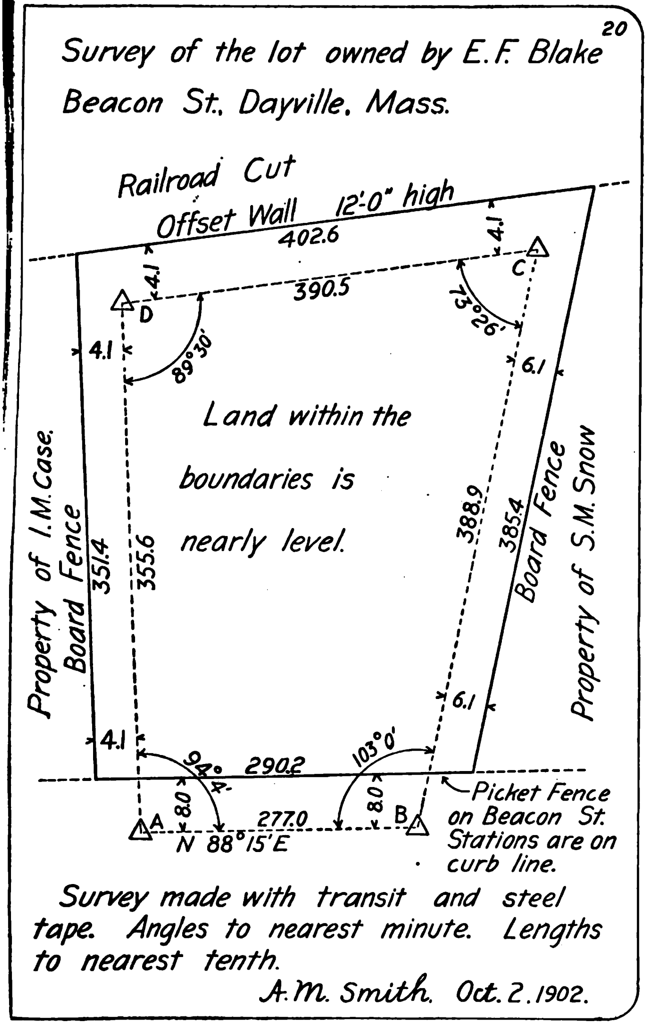
Comments on the Survey. The lot surveyed is the same as that in the preceding illustration. This time, however, the transit stations were chosen so as to make each transit line parallel to the corresponding boundary-line, and any convenient distance away from it: the angle at each corner of the lot is therefore equal to the angle between transit lines at the corresponding station. No angles are taken to the corners of the lot, but the boundary-lines are located by offsets from the transit lines, and their lengths measured as usual.

The *advantages* of this method are that the boundaries are more easily plotted by offsets than by angles, and the angle at each corner is known without computation. The *disadvantages* are in the field work itself. It takes time to get the transit lines established exactly parallel to the fence-lines even if there are no obstacles to measurements or to lines of sight. When there are obstacles, as there usually are, the extra field work involved is out of all proportion to results gained. The time of the draftsman in computing "fence angles" is usually less expensive than the time consumed by a whole transit party in measuring them. See Art. 216 (*d*), p. 151.

Comments on the Notes. This is a simple illustration of the sketch method of keeping notes. It has decided advantages over the method used in the preceding illustration when so few measurements are taken. Extra care, however, should be taken to show very definitely where each measurement belongs. This is accomplished oftentimes by the use of arrow-heads. Notice that the distance between each transit line and the corresponding fence-line is entered in two places; this shows without question that the two are parallel. Notice also that the distance between each transit line and the corresponding fence-line is greatly exaggerated in the sketch to allow space for recording the offset distances in large clear figures.

The note telling what instruments were used and the degree of accuracy with which measurements were taken is useful as a matter of record, and might have weight in relocating boundaries at some future time, or in settling a boundary dispute should one arise.

ILLUSTRATION II



20

Survey of the lot owned by E.F. Blake
Beacon St., Dayville, Mass.

Land within the boundaries is nearly level.

Picket Fence on Beacon St. Stations are on curb line.

Survey made with transit and steel tape. Angles to nearest minute. Lengths to nearest tenth.

A.M. Smith. Oct. 2. 1902.

ILLUSTRATION III

(See inset sheet at the end of this chapter.)

Comments on the Survey. The object of this survey was to locate the house, the barn, and the property lines. The first step was to establish transit stations where they would be of the most use. (See Art. 216, p. 149.) Station *A* was chosen in such a position that the four nearest corners of the house (*1*, *2*, *3*, and *4*), two corners of the barn (*5* and *6*), and a corner of the lot (*7*) could all be located from that one station. Stations *B* and *C* were chosen so that the transit line between them could be used for locating the river bank by offsets. Corner *D* was chosen in any convenient position near the southwest corner of the lot (*11*), where both *C* and *A* would be visible from *D*. A corner of the house (*10*) was located from *D* as a check. All points were located by angles and distances except the point *C* on *CD* and a point on *AB*, 54.9 ft. from *A*. These two points, one on a line with the front of the barn, the other on a line with the back of the house, were located by measurement as indicated on the sketch, merely as a check. The location of *C* was unnecessary, as the point *10* served as a check. It will be noticed that the transit-line angles were doubled. The calculated bearing was also kept, and the magnetic bearing observed for each transit line. This too, perhaps, was an unnecessary precaution in view of the fact that the angles were doubled. Notice also that each building was "measured up," and the lengths of three boundary-lines obtained. If for any reason the lengths of the boundary-lines could not have been measured conveniently, they could have been calculated. (See p. 151.)

The interior angles of the transit lines happen to add up to 360°. This does not mean that no error was made, for one angle may be a minute too large, another a minute too small.

The criticism on p. 176 in regard to permanently referencing some one line of the survey applies in this case also.

The transit lines might, perhaps, have been run to better advantage close to and outside of the fence-lines, provided there were no obstacles. In that case some other method might be used for locating the buildings in place of angles and distances.

Illustration III (Continued)

Comments on the Notes. The form used corresponds to Form 4, p. 173. All angles with corresponding distances are tabulated on the left-hand page. All dimensions and offsets are given directly on the sketch. *DA* is the backsight for so many angles that, instead of repeating the letters *DA* in the first column, a vertical line is drawn. A vertical line is also drawn in the third column instead of repeating the letter *A*.

This is a good illustration of combining the sketch and the tabulated form to advantage. To put all the angles and distances directly on the sketch itself would have required considerable care to avoid crowding; that it can be done, however, is shown in the next illustration.

The explanatory notes, while not as complete as would be required in many cases, are sufficient for this particular survey. The note giving the accuracy with which measurements were taken is one often omitted, but, nevertheless, it might be of considerable value, should any dispute arise concerning the boundary-lines.

The mistake of entering 162° 12′ for 162° 42′ was probably due to an error (afterwards discovered) in reading the angle. (Omitting the half-degree, see page 77, Art. 100.) The error in recording 40.5 for 60.5 was also probably due to careless field work and not to careless note-keeping. The chainmen evidently read the tape from the wrong end and afterward discovered their mistake.

Notice the method of recording magnetic and calculated bearings; in this case they could just as well have been recorded in separate columns.

In giving offsets it would, perhaps, have been better to use the system of "*plus*" distances from *B* instead of giving distances between offsets. (See Art. 198, p. 139.) There are so few offsets in this case, however, that it makes little difference.

Reference numbers are sometimes enclosed thus (6) to avoid mistaking them for dimensions.

In this survey it makes little difference whether the notes are kept from the bottom of the page up or from the top down. Since, however, in some cases it is advantageous to keep the notes from the bottom up, many surveyors prefer to keep *all* notes in that way for the sake of uniformity.

ILLUSTRATION IV

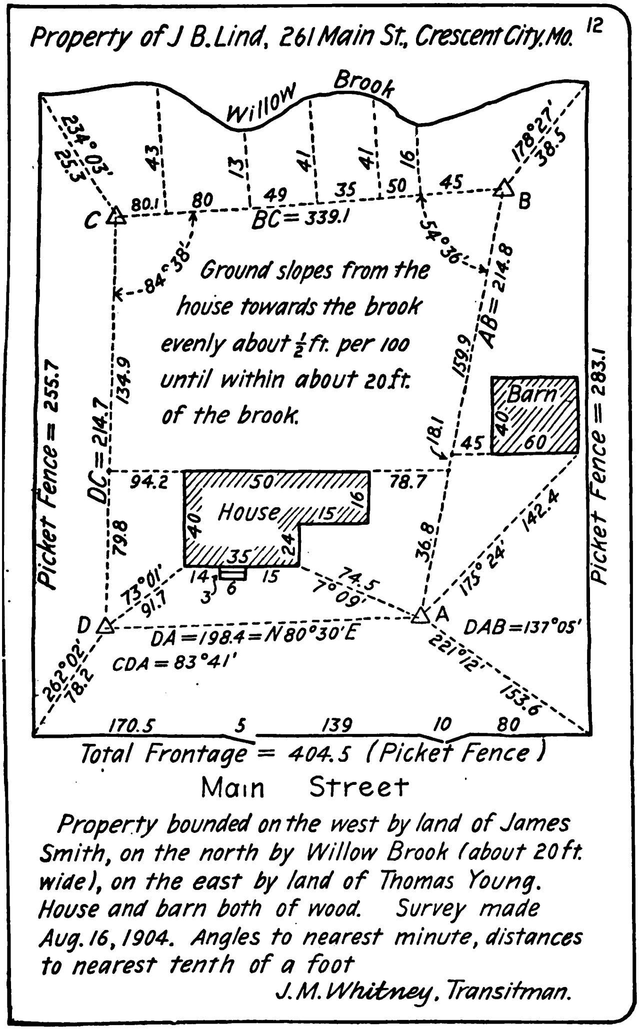
Comments on the Survey. The property surveyed is the same as that in the preceding illustration. The same transit stations were used, but the buildings were located by a slightly different method. The two rear corners of the house were located by finding two points, one on the transit line *AB*, another on *CD*, both in line with the rear of the house. The distances from each of these two points to the nearest corner of the house and to the nearest transit station (viz., 78.7, 36.8 and 94.2, 79.8) together with the dimensions of the house, are all the measurements needed to plot the house. The angles and distances to the two front corners of the house were taken as a check (rather unnecessarily). Notice the different methods of locating the two front corners of the barn. Other ways of using one or more of the methods of Chapter XIII for locating fences and buildings in place of those that were used will suggest themselves to the student. It will prove good practice to study out as many different methods as possible that might have been used in this particular case.

Comments on the Notes. In this case the sketch method is used, the sketch being made free-hand without the use of even a straight-edge. All measurements, including angles, are given on the sketch itself. Notice how the sizes of the buildings and the distances of the transit lines from the fence-lines are exaggerated to make room for recording measurements. In the same way the other distances are exaggerated, no attempt being made to draw to scale, it being far more important to have the notes open and clear. When a sketch is as clear as this illustration the notes are more easily plotted than if kept in tabulated form, but it is rather difficult to keep such a sketch from becoming crowded when there are many dimensions.

The direction, right or left, in which all angles were taken is not noted. It should be, unless previously noted elsewhere once for all.

Notice how the distance 18.1 ft. near the barn is recorded by drawing an arrow and writing the figures to one side. It is frequently necessary to do this (just as in making working drawings) when the space where the number is to go is too small for large clear figures.

Illustration IV



Property of J B. Lind, 261 Main St., Crescent City, Mo. 12

Ground slopes from the house towards the brook evenly about ½ ft. per 100 until within about 20 ft. of the brook.

Total Frontage = 404.5 (Picket Fence)

Main Street

Property bounded on the west by land of James Smith, on the north by Willow Brook (about 20 ft. wide), on the east by land of Thomas Young. House and barn both of wood. Survey made Aug. 16, 1904. Angles to nearest minute, distances to nearest tenth of a foot

J. M. Whitney, Transitman.

ILLUSTRATION V

(See inset sheet at the end of this chapter.)

Comments on the Survey. This is a portion of the preliminary survey for an electric road. Boundaries of the highway through which the road is to run, houses, division-fences or property lines, bridges, streams, and other topographic features for a considerable distance on each side of the highway must be located. The sketch, though not drawn to scale, represents approximately a portion of the map as it will appear when plotted. Great accuracy is not required. Houses, for example, may be located to the nearest foot. Property lines should be located with more care.

In this illustration a number of different methods were employed for locating objects,—a greater variety, perhaps, than would ordinarily be used. For this reason the illustration should be studied with more than ordinary care, since it shows the practical applications of so many of the methods of Chapter XIII. The points to be noticed are:

1. Stations are numbered as in railway work. Art. 209, p. 147.
2. All angles taken are *deflection* angles. Art. 179, p. 120.
3. The boundaries of the highway were located by offsets perpendicular to the transit lines taken at irregular intervals.
4. The fence at *A* is located by finding where if produced it would strike the transit line, and by locating a point 1 (on a line with the front of the house) by angle (50° 58′) and distance (122.6). (Method (*a*), p. 134.)
5. The Bond house is located by finding where one side produced strikes the transit line (at *a*) and then measuring the tie-line (127.8). (Method (*a*), p. 139.) This was probably more convenient than to set up the transit at *c* and measure the angle. (Method (*b*), p. 135.) Point 1, already located on a line with the front of the house, serves as a check.
6. The fence at *C* was located by finding where, if produced, it would strike the transit line and, by producing the front line of the house already located, measuring the distance (95.1).
7. The Sykes house was located from Station 23 + 89 by angles and distances to two front corners (2) and (3) (p. 134).
8. The fence at *B* was located by two offsets (48.5 and 46.5) measured on lines produced from the front and rear sides of the Sykes house.

9. The fence at *D* was located by the tie-line method. (Method (*c*), p. 140.)

10. The four corners of the bridge (14, 15, 16, and 17) were located from Station 27+ 9 by angles and distances.

11. Each of the points 4 to 13 inclusive were located by two angles taken at stations 23+89 and 27+9 respectively, with the transit line between these two stations as a base-line. (Method on p. 137.)

12. The fence at *E* was located by the tie-line method, the point *b*, however, being taken on a line with the front of the Morris house.

13. The fence at *F* was located by producing to a point on the transit line, and locating another point 19 from Station 30+32.5 by angle and distance. Afterwards the distance to *c*, a point on line with the house, was measured (69.1).

14. The Morris house was located from *b* and *c* (already established on line with its front) by the distance from *b*, 84.4. The angle (but not distance) to one of its corners (18) was taken at Station 30+32.5, merely as a check. A better check would have been to measure from 18 to *b*.

Comments on the Notes. The form used corresponds to Form 5, p. 173. The notes read from the bottom up. Station 30+32.5 at the top of the left-hand page would be repeated at the bottom of the next left-hand page to make the tabulated form continuous; just as Station 20+50 was repeated from the preceding left-hand page. In thus repeating a station, only the deflection angle of the transit line is given,—no other notes are repeated.

Only angles and corresponding distances are given in the tabulated form. All other linear measurements are entered directly on the sketch. Bearings are taken for transit lines only, and each is entered between the two stations where it belongs. Thus, for example, S. 81° 15′ E. is entered between 23+89 and 27+9, and is the magnetic bearing of the line between those two stations. All bearings are understood to be *forward bearings*.

Notice that each piece of property is marked with the owner's name. In front of the Morris house a broken line indicates that there is no fence.

In this illustration the sketch covers too much ground; it would have been better to put the sketch as far as the bridge on one page and the remainder on another. Little is gained by sketching the highway as it really is instead of making two straight lines represent the boundaries. The next illustration is an improvement in both these respects.

In both this and the next illustration notice that the distances to points on the transit line at which offsets were taken are entered as "*plus*" stations instead of measuring the actual distances between successive points. This saves time in the field and in plotting since several distances can be measured or plotted at one stretching of the tape or at one setting of the scale as the case may be. When using this method the distance should be measured from the last offset point preceding each transit station to the station itself, as this is a check on the total distance previously measured between the two stations. (See note p. 139.)

Notice that at the top of the page there is a running title, as, for example, "Notes from 20+50 to 27+9." This is invaluable as an aid in finding notes quickly, especially when they are indexed properly.

ILLUSTRATION VI

In Illustration VI a portion of the notes of Illustration V have been reproduced according to the sketch method. All notes pertaining to the transit line are entered in the middle space by themselves according to Form 3, p. 172. This middle space therefore represents the transit line and may be considered *as having no width,* i.e., points on the edges opposite to each other actually coincide on the ground. Thus, for example, offsets marked 23.5 and 47.3 were really measured from the same point on the transit line. Notice how the sides of the highway, although in reality curved, are represented by straight lines. These lines were ruled, but all other lines were drawn free-hand. Compare this page of notes with those of Illustration V on the inset sheet at the end of this chapter. While it is true that one set of notes seems as clear as the other, it should be kept in mind that much more of the survey is included in Illustration V than in Illustration VI. The notes of Illustration VI, on the other hand, are probably easier to plot than those of Illustration V. The two illustrations afford an excellent opportunity of comparing the sketch method with the combination method of *keeping notes.*

ILLUSTRATION VI

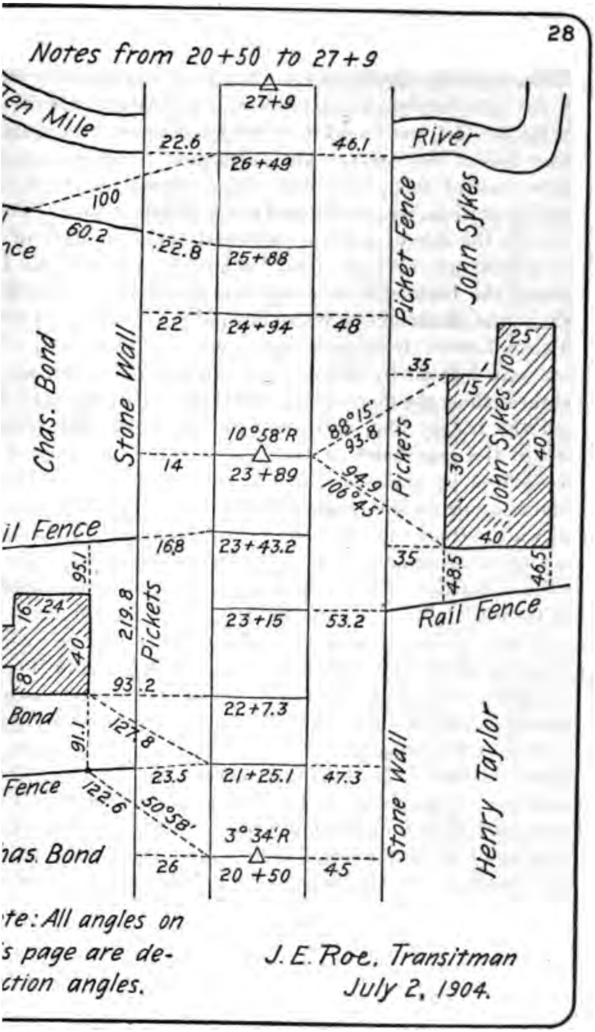


ILLUSTRATION VII

Comments on the Survey. The method illustrated in the notes on the opposite page is, perhaps, the most general method for making a survey of a city street. Station 0 was found by stretching the tape between merestones and taking the middle point. Station 3+33.4 was found in a similar manner, thus fixing the center line of the street. The substation 1+98 was set at the intersection of this center-line with a fence-line. Each of the other substations was established at the intersection of the center-line with the side of a house produced. The method of angle and distance (p. 134) was used for locating most of the house-corners, the backsight in every case being from a permanent sight on the center-line *produced* beyond Sta. 3+33.4. Distances between houses, front and rear, were also measured. Fence-lines were located by offsets from houses, and fence-corners by distances along the fence-lines. Manholes were located by offsets from the transit line, and street-car tracks by offsets from the curb to the gage-line* of the nearest rail. The curved track was located by angles and distances to points about the same distance apart on the nearer rail (p. 136). Widths of sidewalks and widths from curb to curb were measured and checked by the total measurement from street-line to street-line. The angle of the street-line on Fourth Ave. (31° 28′) was measured with the transit at Sta. 3+33.4, sighting on a monument a block away, but on Third Ave. the angle of the street-line was found by laying off 90°, measuring 100 ft. on this line, and then from this point measuring the offset to the curb- and street-line. Sometimes one of these methods and sometimes the other can be used to advantage.

Other Methods. In the above method the distances from the street-line to the fronts of houses are not measured, and can be found only by scaling the map or by calculation. A survey is often made to locate veranda-lines and front lines of houses, and in such a case the best method is probably that of offsets measured from a line run on the sidewalk *parallel* to the street-line. Sometimes offsets are taken from the curb-line or, if there are no fences in the way, from the street-line itself.

Suggestion. Where buildings are near the street-line offset-rods may be used to advantage in place of the steel tape. A stadia-rod will answer

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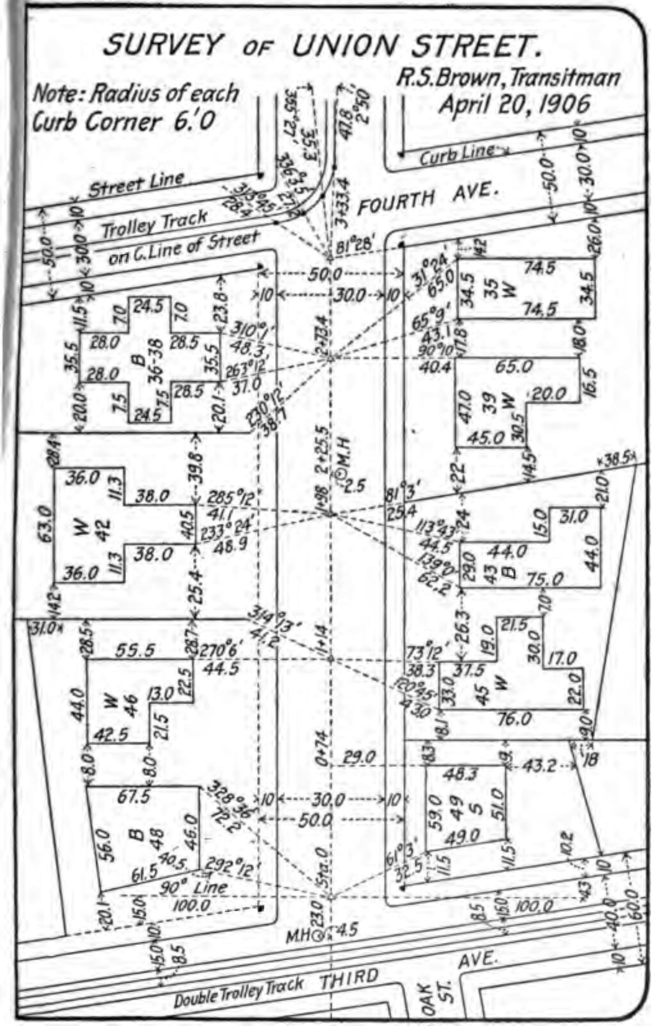
* *Gage-line* is the line on the inside of the head of the rail ½″ below the *top.*

ILLUSTRATION VII



the purpose. One end of the rod is held against the building,
measurement is read at the point where the line of sight strikes th

In a survey of an entire city block or of several adjacent
it is often necessary to run transit lines on the sidewalks
the street or wherever they can be established to the best
tage. Thus, for example, if a transit line were to b
Oak St., it might be advantageous to have the first stati
Union St. on the left-hand sidewalk, and the last statio
Oak St. on the right-hand sidewalk, thus making the line of
between the two as long as possible.

Remark. In a series of letters to the Engineering News, Vol. II,
the following methods for locating houses were advocated by di
surveyors: (1) Plane table; (2) Angle and distance (p. 134); (3)
method (p. 138); (4) Tie-line method (p. 137); (5) Each front corner b
intersecting distances (p. 139); (6) By intersecting angles (p. 137).
shows the diversity of opinion regarding methods of location, and
cates that each method has its advantages.

Comments on the Notes. This is an example of the sk
method. Each angle is entered above a line drawn from
station to the point sighted at, and the corresponding dis
is entered below the same line. Portions of the houses
exaggerated to accommodate dimensions. Each house is ma
with its street number, and with *W*, *S*, or *B* to denote wh
it is wood, stone, or brick.

When it is desired to distinguish between a fence along a s
and the street-line itself the former may be indicated by a
line and the latter by a broken line. Thus in the sketch th
a fence along the right-hand side of the street, but only a st
line along the left-hand side.

The notes present a somewhat crowded appearance bu
this respect they are typical of city notes kept by the sk
method. By using the combination method all angles and
responding distances would be transferred to the left-
page, thus relieving the crowded appearance, but making
little more difficult to plot the notes.

eari

37°3

37°3

87°4

87°4

3°/

3°/

80°

80°

CHAPTER XVI

TRIANGULATION

THE aim in this chapter is to give methods for simple triangulation, such, for example, as that which forms the basis of an ordinary topographic survey. Many of the suggestions and directions apply equally well to the special problems in triangulation given in Chapter XVIII. No attempt has been made to treat the subject as comprehensively as would be required in a work on geodetic surveying.

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243. Triangulation. If, in any triangle, one side and the two adjacent angles are measured, the lengths of the other two sides may be computed by the methods of trigonometry. This is the basis of all triangulation.

Illustration. Problems in finding distances to inaccessible points, distances between inaccessible points, and similar problems (see Chapter XVIII) are examples of simple triangulation.

244. In a Network or System of Triangles the side of some one triangle is measured first, and from this *base-line* and the two adjacent angles the remaining two sides of the triangle are *computed.* The *calculated* lengths of these two sides may be used as new base-lines for two other triangles, and the *calculated* lengths of the sides of these new triangles used as base-lines for still other triangles. Thus the system may be extended indefinitely. It is customary to measure all three angles of each triangle, but only one linear measurement is made—that of the original base-line in the first triangle. One side of the last triangle is usually so located that it can be measured; the agreement of the measured and the calculated length of this side is a check on the accuracy of the whole work.

(*a*) *Illustration.* A network of triangles forms the basis of nearly all surveys covering large areas, such, for example, as the coast and geodetic surveys and other extended topographic surveys.

(*b*) *Remark.* When the sides of the triangles are so long and the precision required is so great that the curvature of the earth must be taken into account, the work is no longer plane surveying,—it is geodetic surveying, p. 2.

(*c*) *How large areas may be covered by triangulation in plane surveying?* This depends, of course, upon the required limits of error. The error which results from neglecting curvature is about one foot in 34½ miles. (See Art. 5, p. 2.)

245. Sources of Error in Triangulation. (1) *Poorly proportioned triangles.* Angles less than 30° or more than 120°

should be avoided, not because it makes any difference in the field work,—one angle is as easily measured as another,—but because a given error in a small angle affects the computed lengths in a triangle more than does the same error in an angle which approaches 90°. This is because the tabular differences in a table of sines approach zero as the angle approaches 90°, while they are very large for angles near 0° or 180°. The ideal triangle is of course an equilateral triangle. It is difficult to select stations so that the triangles will be properly proportioned, yet this is a very important source of error and one too often overlooked.

(2) *Error in the measurement of the base-line.* Since any error in the length of the base-line affects every side of every triangle in the whole system, extreme precautions are usually taken to measure the base-line with great precision. (See p. 57.)

(3) *Errors in the measurement of angles.* These are reduced to a minimum by using the method of *repetition* (p. 99) or *series* (p. 100), and by taking other precautions (Art. 140, p. 101) not taken in ordinary work.

246. Stations and Signals. *Signal* is a term used in triangulation to denote any structure or object which marks the position of a station and which may be sighted upon from other stations. It includes scaffolds used to elevate either the object sighted at or the instrument used in sighting. All sorts of prominent objects are used as signals, natural and artificial. (See p. 193.) The station itself is usually a hub in the ground, an iron bolt in a ledge of rock, or some other definite mark. Permanent stations should be carefully referenced.

247. Choice of Stations. The first considerations are (1) that the triangles shall be properly proportioned, and (2) that the stations in any one triangle shall be intervisible. (3) Locate them, as far as possible, where they will be most useful either in the location of prominent features, or as starting and closing points for traversing, or for establishing secondary systems of triangles. Among other requirements are: (4) Firm ground or stable support for the instrument, free from vibration, sheltered from wind; (5) Lengths of sight suited to the telescope used; (6) The greatest possible area in view in order that a large number of substations may be controlled; (7) Freedom from atmospheric disturbances,—for example, if a line of sight passes over a hill-top close to the ground it will be affected by the "boiling" of the air, or if it passes near a chimney continually emitting smoke it may be almost useless; (8) Aim at the simplest, best-balanced system of triangles practicable.

It is very seldom that all the above requirements can be realized. Usually the surveyor has to take stations where he can get them. The most favorable conditions for triangulation are generally found in hilly country, with summits, comparatively clear and unobstructed, upon which stations may be established. The least favorable conditions are in flat wooded country, where it is either necessary to do a great deal of cutting or else to build high scaffolds upon which to set up the instrument. In cities stations may be established on the tops of buildings, and church spires or other prominent objects may be taken for substations.

A thorough reconnaissance of the ground to be covered is essential in planning any system of triangulation, and it pays to give careful consideration to all feasible schemes.

248. The Base-line. (*a*) *Location.* Try to select a place for the base-line: (1) Where the ground is level and well suited for accurate measurement; (2) Where the country is open, so that sights may be taken in any desired direction from each end of the line; (3) Where a system of well-proportioned triangles can be built up, with stations which meet the requirements of the preceding article.

Remark. Too often the surveyor will be unable to find a suitable place for a base line, and must overcome natural obstacles as best he can. Sometimes it is necessary to lay out a broken base-line and find the direct distance between the two ends by indirect measurements. The required distance corresponds to an omitted measurement, and is found by computation. (See Part II.)

Occasionally it may be necessary to locate the base-line in a place where it is impossible to establish signal-stations at the ends, as, for example, on a railroad-track. The signals may be established elsewhere, and the ends of the base transferred by some accurate system of check measurements.* In geodetic work a comparatively short base-line is expanded to a comparatively long side of the first triangle in a similar manner by a carefully planned system of smaller triangles.† Since base-lines can be measured with accuracy greater than can be sustained throughout the triangulation, it is customary to introduce new base-lines whenever the accumulated errors are likely to exceed the limits of error.

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* Wilson's Topographic Surveying, p. 524.
† Gillespie's Surveying, Vol. II, p. 15.

(*b*) *The length of the base-line* will depend upon how large triangles are to be used. This, in turn, depends upon the ground to be covered and the points where stations are desired. The base-line must be of such a length that properly proportioned triangles can be built up. To adopt a base-line several hundred feet long and make each of the two other sides of the first triangle several miles long is an extreme illustration of what should *not* be done.

Remark. The above holds true for ordinary simple triangulation. For extended systems short base-lines may be chosen and expanded as suggested in the preceding article.

(*c*) *To measure the base-line.* The steel tape is best adapted to the measurement of base-lines, and the method of procedure is given on page 57. For extensive surveys elaborate apparatus for base-line measurement is used. Among the various forms are: (1) *Contact apparatus*, or bars fitted with a device for bringing the ends in successive contacts; (2) *Optical apparatus*, with fine lines near the ends of each bar, and microscopes for observing and setting the marks; (3) *Compensating apparatus*, intended to be so constructed that the two ends of each bar remain a constant distance apart. The steel tape, however, is fast superseding all other forms, and practically nothing else is used in plane surveying.*

249. What Angles are Measured in Triangulation? When a station is the vertex of two or more triangles several combinations of angles are possible. The angle of each triangle may be measured, then the sum-angle of any two angles or any three angles, and so on. While this multiplication of measurements furnishes more conditions for the final adjustment of all the angles at the station, it is not advisable because the extra time required is seldom warranted by the increase in the accuracy of the results. It is better to use the time available in the careful measurement of those angles only which will be used in the computations.

250. Measurement of Angles. Two general methods are in use for measuring angles with great precision: (1) the method of *series* and (2) the method of *repetition* (pp. 99-100). The former method is used in geodetic surveying where instruments of great precision are available. The method of repetition, however, is most used in ordinary work, where transits are seldom graduated to read closer than 20″. Any method of procedure should aim to eliminate instrumental errors (p. 104), and to reduce to a minimum all errors of observation. To eliminate instrumental errors the precautions of Art. 140, p. 101, should be taken. A number of methods of procedure, each of which embodies these precautions, are in common use, but the following is recommended:

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* The use of elaborate apparatus comes under the head of higher surveying. Consult Wilson, p. 495, Gillespie, Vol. II, p. 59, or Johnson's *Surveying*.

(*a*) METHOD OF REPETITION. The method, in brief, is to repeat the angle six times to the right, inverting the telescope at the end of the third repetition. Then, *without resetting the vernier*, measure the explement (360° —angle) also to the right, with the telescope still inverted for the first three repetitions, but normal for the last three. Theoretically the vernier reading should come back to the original setting, and the sum of the two angles (angle + explement) should equal 360°. The discrepancy, equal to the difference between the final reading and the original setting, represents the total cumulative error due to both accidental and constant errors, and this error has been found constant for a given instrument and given conditions within the probable error of pointing. It seems probable, therefore, that when the angle and its explement are each corrected by half the amount of the cumulative error, the errors from all sources have been as far as possible eliminated. This is confirmed by the fact that when angles measured by this method are so corrected they are in close accord, even though they are taken under conditions which give closing errors of wide range.

It is to be noted that the plates are always turned in the same direction, clockwise, and that there are in all twelve repetitions, six for each angle, but that the verniers are set only once. Both verniers should be read to eliminate errors of eccentricity.

(*b*) *Method of procedure.* (Illustrated by notes on p. 197.) *First step.* (1) Set the A vernier at 0°, or at random, and record the reading of both the A and the B vernier. (2) Take the angle to the right, record the single reading as an approximate check, and repeat two more times, three repetitions in all. (3) *Invert* the telescope and continue the repetitions for three times, or until six repetitions in all have been made. (4) Record both vernier readings.

Second step. Without resetting the vernier, measure the explement of the angle clockwise in exactly the same way, with the telescope inverted for the first three repetitions and normal for the last three.

These two steps constitute a "set," and from two to four sets for each angle are usually sufficient in ordinary work.

(*c*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) Great delicacy of manipulation is required, as a slightly awkward touch will often spoil a set. Keep the hands off the tripod, turn the plates gently, taking hold of the plate, *not* the telescope, and do not force the clamps. (2) Notice that in the first step the backsight is always on the left-hand station, while in the second step it is always on the right-hand station. Remember that the lower clamp and tangent-screw are used for backsighting, p. 91, and that turning the wrong tangent-screw will spoil a set. (3) Half the observations are taken with inverted telescope to eliminate, as far as possible, errors in the horizontality of the supporting axis of the telescope as well as errors of collimation. Hence do not touch the leveling-screws during the progress of a set. (4) Be sure in making all pointings to turn the tangent-screws *against* the opposing springs. (5) With the exception of the single check reading no readings are taken until the six repetitions have been completed. Read one row of graduations exclusively, p. 71. (6) This method does not involve the precaution of measuring an angle first to the right and then to the left, but the error is allowed to accumulate and then is corrected. There are several other methods of procedure in use which do involve this precaution, but the method given here is used in the U. S Coast and Geodetic Survey, and is considered one of the best of the methods of repetition.

Illustration. The following is an outline of the work that was done when the notes on the opposite page were taken: (1) Set the A vernier at 0° 0′ 0″; found the reading of the B vernier to be 180° 0′ 0″; entered these two readings on the fourth line from the bottom of the page, opposite *A*. (2) Measured the angle *ACB* once and recorded the single reading on the second line from the bottom, opposite *B*1; repeated the angle five times in addition, the last three with telescope inverted; recorded both vernier readings (252° 31′ 0″ and 72° 31′ 0″) opposite *B*6. These two readings happen to agree in minutes and seconds. (3) Allowed the verniers to remain at these two readings (which are again recorded opposite *B*, three lines up the page), backsighted on *B*, and made six repetitions of the explementary angle *BCA*; recorded the two vernier readings (0° 1′ 0″ and 180° 1′ 0″). Evidently the total error which has accumulated from all sources is 0° 1′ 0″. This completes the field work of the first set. (4) Worked out the values in the fourth column as indicated. Since the readings from both verniers agree exactly throughout the work in this first set, the values in the fourth column are exactly the same as the corresponding values in the second column except 2160° 1′ 0″, which was obtained by adding 6×360° to 0° 1′ 0″, since the indicator has moved six times around the graduated circle. [See p. 100, Art. 138(*d*).] (5) Worked out the values in the fifth column. Since the sum of 42° 5′ 10″ and 317° 55′ exceeds 360° by 10″, and since, presumably, the angle and its explement were measured with equal precision, each value was reduced 5″, the corrected values 42° 5′ 5″ and 317° 54′ 55′ were recorded in the fifth column, and the two values were finally added to make sure that their sum is 360°.

The second set was carried out in exactly the same way except that in the beginning the verniers were set at random (25° 20′ 30″ and 205° 20′ 0″) in order to avoid bias from the readings in the first set, and also to use a different portion of the limb. In this set the readings from the two verniers disagree in two instances and hence the corresponding values in the fourth column are *mean* values. The value 2185° 20′ 45″ was obtained by adding 6×360° to 25° 20′ 45″.

The values of the required angle as found in the first and second set were 42° 5′ 5″ and 42° 5′ 10″, and since no other sets were taken the final *value is the* mean of these two or 42° 5′ 7.5″, as indicated in the last *column.*

Point Sighted	Readings Vernier A	Readings Vernier B	Mean Reading	Corrected Value	Mean of Two Sets
Transit on Station C. Measured Angles ACB and its Explement,- Both Clockwise					
A 6	25°21'0"	205°20'30"	2185°20'45"		
B	277°51'30"	97°51'30"	277°51'30"		
6xBCA			6)1907°29'15"		
A 1			317°54'52.5"	317°54'50"	
B 6	277°51'30"	97°51'30"	277°51'30"		
A	25°20'30"	205°20'0"	25°20'15"		
6xACB	67°26'		6)252°31'15"		
B 1	25°20'30"		42°5'12.5"	42°5'10"	10
	42°5'30"			360°0'0"	5 15
A 6	0°1'0"	180°1'0"	2160°1'0"		42°5'7.5"
B	252°31'0"	72°31'0"	252°31'0"		
6xBCA			6)1907°30'0"		
A 1			317°55'0"	317°54'55"	
B 6	252°31'0"	72°31'0"	252°31'0"		
A	0°0'0"	180°0'0"	0°0'0"		
6xACB			6)252°31'0"		
B 1	42°5'		42°5'10"	42°5'5"	
				360°0'0"	

251. Field Notes for Triangulation. Many forms common use. The advantages of the form on the precedi are: Only six columns are required, all arithmetical shown, and the notes are practically self-explaining. the following points: (1) The first three columns are co in the field,—the last three may be worked up in th (2) The vernier readings occupy only two lines for any on but leave three lines at the bottom of the page and three b angles for the arithmetical work. The notes are entered f bottom of the page up as a matter of convenience in subt vernier readings. (3) The fourth column is the mean of and *seconds* read from verniers A and B. The degrees ar from A. Ignore the degrees in the B vernier reading: t usually not recorded at all. When they are recorded, h they serve as a check on blunders in reading vernier A two readings would be 180° apart, provided there w eccentricity. (4) The single reading in the second col entered simply as an approximate check.

Suggestions. (1) Always enter at the head of the notes the occupied and the angles measured. (2) Sketches of the trian explanatory notes, and other data are put on the opposite pag pertaining to the weather, to atmospheric conditions, to the ki strument used, etc., are more important in triangulation than kinds of work. (3) When a set of notes is manifestly incorr them out neatly and write across them "ABANDONED" or "INCOR

252. Signals for Stations.* In Fig. 252 is shown a signal which may be used in ordinary The requirements are: (1) The mast sh plumb and over the station; (2) The fo should be set firmly in the ground and b braced to make them rigid. (3) The bracing and the bottom of the mast sh high enough from the ground to allow strument to be placed underneath and th to be carried on without disturbing the

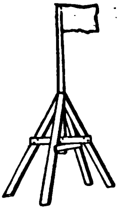

FIG. 252.

(*a*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) To anchor the legs dig holes tw so into the ground, and when the legs are planted drive a stake ground beside each leg and nail the leg to the stake. (2) Plumb by observing it from four different positions, holding a plumb-lin the eye. (3) Signals may often be constructed from poles, 4" diameter, cut in the woods. Old fence-rails make good braces. sometimes difficult to set a *quadripod* signal so that its legs will n fere with lines of sight to other stations; for this reason a *trip* is often preferred. (5) Put a small hook on the bottom of the m which to suspend the plumb-bob.

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* *See Gillespie*, Vol. II, Johnson, or Wilson for the construction *elaborate signals*.

ractical questions. (1) *What should be the diameter of the mast?*
t as small as possible and yet have it distinctly visible, so that it
ɜ accurately bisected by the cross-hair. The latter will ordinarily
ι strip 0.3 of an inch wide at a mile, or about 3 inches for a 10-mile
Use a pole 1″ in diameter for sights less than a mile, and poles
3″ in diameter for five-mile sights. A pole 4″ in diameter can be
venty miles with a good telescope and clear atmosphere.
What error is allowable in centering a mast or an instrument over a
? From the table on p. 108 it is seen that in order to make an
f one second in an angle the instrument or masts must be out of
n the following amounts:

$\frac{1}{32}$ of an inch for sights 500 ft. long.
$\frac{1}{16}$ " " " " " 1000 " "
$\frac{5}{16}$ " " " " " a mile long.
3 inches " " 10 miles long.

ιe lengths of sights are known approximately, and limits of error
ξular measurement have been adopted, the above table will serve
ιide in centering the mast, setting up the instrument, and in point-

*ccentricity of stations.** It is sometimes necessary to use for sub-
s objects which are inaccessible or over which an instrument can-
set up. In this case one of the methods for inaccessible points
er XVIII) may be used.
tration. A church-steeple is located from two triangulation sta-
A traverse is started near the church. The spire and two traverse
s form a triangle. The length of the side between the traverse sta-
ving been measured, the other two sides may be found, p. 222. It
necessary in addition to observe the angle between lines from one
e station to a triangulation station and to the spire.

. **Limits of Error.** In a test of a 6-in. transit reading only
′, sights were taken from the same station to five distant
. Angles were measured in succession, each angle being
twelve repetitions, six times with the telescope normal
x with the telescope inverted. Upon completing the
the sum of the angles exceeded 360° by 5″, or an average
of 1″ per angle.†
ιn example taken from actual practice eight angles of a
ulation system were measured with a 6-in. transit reading
. Twelve repetitions were given each angle, following the
d of procedure outlined on p. 195. Angles were adjusted
ɜ method of logarithmic residuals, and the maximum
nce between the measured value of an angle and its ad-
value was 3.98″, the minimum difference was 0.57″, and
ean difference for the eight angles was 1.86″. In a second
ι of eight angles the differences were: Maximum 0.83″,
um .07″, mean 0.44″. In the survey from which these
are taken work was continued throughout the day, re-
ss of atmospheric "boiling" or of wind save in extreme

---

* See Gillespie, Vol. II, p. 89.
† Eng. News, Feb. 14, 1901, p. 122.

cases, and the number of sets measured per day varied fr 10 to 25, the time occupied in going from one station to anot being an important factor.*

The above results show what can be done with an ordin transit. They represent a higher degree of precision than ordinarily required in simple triangulation covering small are In any given case the allowable angular error is determined the allowable error in the position of a triangulation-point, a this depends not only upon the angular error, but upon the s and proportions of the triangle and upon the precision of base-line measurement.

254. Triangulation and Trigonometric Leveling.] *A* and *B* be the ends of a base-line and *C* the third station of triangle. If the distance *AC* has been found by triangulat and the vertical angle was taken to *C* when the instrument at *A*, the difference in elevation between *A* and *C* may be co puted (p. 244). In like manner the difference in elevation tween *B* and *C* may be found, and since the base-line is eit level or the difference in elevation of its two ends is known t affords a check on the elevation of *C*. When the instrumen moved to *C* the vertical angles and triangulation distances two other stations will give the elevations of these two statio and so on indefinitely. As the horizontal angles must be me ured anyhow, the only additional field work consists in measur vertical angles; hence it is an economical method. As the vation of each station may be determined by independent servations from at least two stations, there is a good check the work. The results in many cases compare favorably w results obtained by spirit-leveling.

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* Eng. News, May 30, 1901, p. 402.

CHAPTER XVII

TRANSIT SURVEYING—SPECIAL WORK

THE first part of this chapter deals with certain problems which occasionally arise in transit surveying. The second part outlines methods of staking out work for purposes of construction. There is no end to the variety encountered in this special work, but typical cases, such as a young engineer is likely to meet early in his experience, have been selected. Those cases in which leveling and transit work are combined are treated in Chapter XXIII. No attempt is made to take up railway work, as that s a subject in itself, fully treated in books on railway surveying.

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255. Balancing-in the Transit, i.e., to set up a transit on line between two given points. It is assumed that neither point can be seen from the other, as this is the most difficult case, but it is also assumed that both of the given points can be seen from the required point at which the transit is to stand. Set two poles on line from 30 to 100 ft. apart, one on each side of the required transit point. Line the poles in by the method on page 55. The transit can now be set approximately on line by means of the two poles, and roughly leveled up. Sight on one of the given points, plunge the telescope, note how far to one side of the other point the line of sight strikes and move the transit accordingly. Repeat until the transit is on line.

Practical Hints. The preliminary use of the two poles (or short stakes if poles are not at hand) saves time. The nearer on line the transit is the more carefully it should be leveled up, especially the level-bulb at right angles to the line of sight. Usually after one or two preliminary set-ups the transit can be brought into line by means of the shifting head. Do not split hairs in the preliminary set-ups. Do not backsight indiscriminately first on one of the given points and then on the other. The amount to move the transit can be estimated more easily if one of the given points is always used for a backsight, the foresight striking near the other. When the transit is apparently on line it may be well to test by the method of double reverse (p. 92).

256. To Sight Parallel to a Given Line. A transit stands, for example, a few feet from the side of a building and it is desired to sight parallel to that side. By *swinging* the tape, find the *shortest* distance from the transit to the side of the building.

Suppose this distance is 3.8 ft. At any convenient distance from the transit, the farther the better, hold one end of the tape against the building, and swing the tape with the thumb or pencil held 3.8 ft. from the end. As the thumb or pencil describes an arc of 3.8 ft. radius, it will seem to the transitman looking through the telescope to move *away* from the building and then *towards* it. Keeping the cross-hairs on it by moving the telescope, the transitman should clamp just at the turn, i.e., when the thumb or pencil is farthest from the side of the building.

The same method may be used for sighting parallel to a fence or any other similar object. (For a method when the parallel lines are some distance apart, see Art. 278 (*b*), p. 224.)

257. To Find the Intersection of Two Straight Lines. Suppose that *AB* and *CD* are the two intersecting lines. Set up over *A* or *B* and set two stakes on *AB* from 6 ft. to 10 ft. apart. One of these stakes should be on one side, the other on the other side of the required point of intersection as judged by sighting with the eye along *CD*. Mark the exact points on the stakes with nails driven *part way* in. In a similar manner, setting up over *C* or *D*, set two stakes in the line *CD*, one on each side of the point of intersection. Find the required point by stretching two intersecting strings between the nails in the stakes.

Remark. It is evident that it is unnecessary to drive stakes on the line *CD*; it is often better simply to establish a single point,—i.e., where the line of sight crosses the string (or the edge of a tape) stretched between the nails on *AB*.

258. To Measure the Angle at a Fence-corner. It is assumed that the transit cannot be set up over either fence-line. Establish a line parallel to each fence-line as close to it as convenient (Art. 256), find the intersection of these two lines as explained in the preceding article, and setting up over this intersection, measure the angle. The angle can often be found indirectly by computation (Art. 216 (*d*), p. 151).

Remark. The above method is general; a special method requiring but one set-up and applicable in many cases is as follows: Set up over *any* point inside the fences and as close as practicable to the corner. Establish a line parallel to each fence-line (Art. 256) and measure the angle.

Where to set fences. Division fences are usually set so that the posts and rails are on one side of the property line and the pickets or boards are on the other side. Stone walls are set with centers on division-lines. Fences along streets should be set so that no post nor any part of the fence will project outside of the street-line. *Street-lines* should be marked by *monuments or merestones* set at the street-corners or on offset lines.

259. Referencing a Point. The process is the reverse of that explained in Art. 257, and consists in setting four stakes so that two lines between them will intersect at the point to be referenced. (See p. 55 for this and two other methods.)

Any point which is likely to be disturbed during construction should be referenced. In some cases the reference-stakes must be placed some distance away, in other cases close to the given point.

Illustration. A transit station may be referenced by plunging the telescope and setting stakes perhaps 100 to 200 ft. away. On the other hand, reference stakes for a merestone may be set a few feet each side of the spot where the hole is to be dug, and the exact point on each stake determined by stretching strings over the point previously located.

260. Referencing a Line. (1) Reference any two points in the line which are visible from each other and far enough apart to determine the line accurately. This may be done in two ways: (1) By offsets from buildings and other permanent structures, or by any of the other methods of referencing points. (2) By referencing one point in the line and measuring the angle which the line makes with some other line. This includes referencing a line by its azimuth or bearing.

Remark. The importance of carefully referencing at least one line of a survey is often overlooked. A map may be very accurate and complete and it may show one *point* carefully referenced, but unless some *line* is referenced also, the entire survey may be swung on the one known point as a pivot. This is the source of much of the trouble in rerunning old surveys, and gives rise to many boundary disputes. Objects used for reference should be as *definite* and as *permanent* as possible.

261. To Locate Points on the Water with Two Transits. The method used is that of intersecting angles outlined on page 137, Art. 193.

Practical hints: The base-line between the two transits should be so chosen that the angles of intersection are not too oblique or too acute. In most cases, as in taking soundings from a boat, the work must be done rapidly. Each transitman follows the boat with his telescope, keeping the line of sight on the sounding line or pole, and at a given signal from the man in the boat reads and records the angle. *It will save time* NOT *to clamp the upper plate at all.* In recording angles some system must be used so that, when the notes are plotted, the angle to a given point recorded in one transitman's book can be used with the angle to the same point recorded in the other transitman's book. It is just here that mistakes are likely to occur. One transitman, for example, misses a signal and fails to take the angle. This puts him one angle behind the other transitman, and this causes trouble in plotting. One method of avoiding this is for each transitman to record the exact time at which each angle is taken in a column reserved for that purpose. If angles are taken very rapidly, record the time, say, of every fifth angle. Of course the watches of the two transitmen should be set to keep the same time. As an additional precaution, flags of different colors may be used by the boatman, as, for example, a white flag each time a new set of 10 soundings is begun, a red flag each time a new set of 100, and a green flag for all other soundings.

262. To Establish a Base-line by Means of a Supplementary Broken Base-line. When local conditions make it impossible to establish a base-line of the required length by the usual methods, two points may be chosen to serve as ends of a base-line, a series of transit lines may be run connecting these two points, and the length of the required base-line may be computed by the methods explained in Part II for calculating omitted measurements. The calculated length may be checked by repeating the work, using a different or supplementary broken base-line. This problem is practically the same as one which often arises in mine surveying and tunnel work.

263. To Run in an Arc of a Circle with the Transit and Tape. It is assumed that the radius is so large that points on the arc cannot be found by swinging the tape. The method here given is the one used in railway surveying.

(*a*) *Geometrical and trigonometrical principles.* In Fig. 263 *AB* and *EF* are two lines connected by the arc of a circle beginning at *B* and ending at *E*. Each of the lines *AB* and *EF* is *tangent* to the arc, and the two lines are produced until they intersect at *G*.

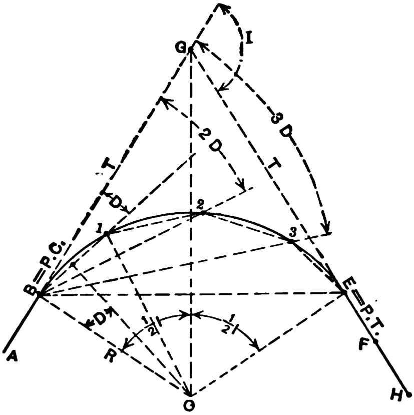

FIG. 263.

DEFINITIONS AND NOTATION

BG = *GE* are called *tangents* (denoted by *T*).
Angle at *G* is the *angle of intersection* (denoted by *I*).
BO = *OE* is the *radius* of the curve (denoted by *R*).
The angle *GB*1 is the *deflection angle* (denoted by *D*).

B-1 = 1–2 = 2–3 is the *chord* used in the field work (denoted by C).

B = point of curvature (denoted by P.C.)

E = point of tangency (denoted by P.T.).

(b) GEOMETRICAL PROPERTIES OF A CIRCLE

(1) $GB = GE$ and $GBE = GEB = \frac{1}{2}I$.

(2) $GBO = 90° = GEO$.

(3) $I = BOE$ and $BOG = \frac{1}{2}I = EOG$.

(4) $GB1 = \frac{1}{2}BO1$, $GB2 = \frac{1}{2}BO2$, $GB3 = \frac{1}{2}BO3$, etc.

(5) $1B2 = \frac{1}{2}1O2$, $1B3 = \frac{1}{2}1O3$, $1BE = \frac{1}{2}1OE$.

(6) If B-1 = 1–2 = 2–3, then $BO1 = 1O2 = 2O3$.

(c) FORMULAS *

(7) Given R and I to find T: $T = R \times \tan \frac{1}{2}I$.

(8) Given I and T to find R: $R = T \times \cot \frac{1}{2}I$.

(9) Given R and C to find D: $\sin D = \frac{1}{2}C \div R$.

(10) Given D and C to find R: $R = \frac{1}{2}C \div \sin D$.

(11) Given I, T, and C to find D: $\sin D = (C \times \tan \frac{1}{2}I) \div 2T$.

(12) Given I, D, and C to find T: $T = (C \times \tan \frac{1}{2}I) \div 2 \sin D$.

Formulas for chords 100 ft. long:

$\sin D = 50 \div R$; $\sin D = (50 \times \tan \frac{1}{2}I) \div T$;

$R = 50 \div \sin D$; $T = (50 \times \tan \frac{1}{2}I) \div \sin D$.

To find the number of chords in the length of a curve:

(13) $N = \frac{1}{2}I \div D$.

If D is not contained an even number of times in $\frac{1}{2}I$, the fraction of a chord remaining is called the *sub-chord,* and the corresponding deflection angle is called a *sub-deflection* angle. Thus in Fig. 263 the chord 3-E is not quite as long as the others, 3-E is a *sub-chord* and $3BE$ a *sub-deflection* angle.

(*d*) *Length of curve* is usually understood to mean the length as found by measuring the chords and *not* the length measured on the curve itself. Thus if the standard chord used in running in the curve is 100 ft., and the number of chords (N) found from (13) is 7.813, then the *length of curve* is 781.3 ft.

(*e*) *Degree of curve* is understood to mean the number of degrees at the center subtended by a 100-ft. chord. Thus in Fig. 263, *if* B-1 = 100 ft. and $BO1 = 6°$, the curve is a 6° curve; in a 5° curve $BO1 = 5°$; in a 1° curve $BO1 = 1°$, and so on. From Fig. 263, $R \times \sin \frac{1}{2}$ degree of curve $= \frac{1}{2}B$-1, or if *deg.* represents degree of curve, $R = \frac{1}{2}C \div \sin \frac{1}{2}$ deg., or for 100-ft. chords

(14) $R = 50 \div \sin \frac{1}{2}$ deg.

This formula is practically the same as formula (10).

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* The trigonometrical relations in formulas (7) to (12) will become evident from a study of Fig. 263.

(*f*) *Field work of running in a circular curve.* In Fig. 263 it is desired to connect two lines *AB* and *HF* by the arc of a circle which shall be tangent to *AB* at a *given* point *B* (P.C.), and tangent to *HF* at some *unknown* point *E* (P.T.).

(1) Produce *AB* and *HF* until they intersect and measure *I*.

(2) Measure the length of *T* (*BG*) and establish *E* so that $EG = BG$.

(3) From (11) calculate the deflection angle *D*.

(4) Set up at *B*, backsight on *G*, turn off $GB1 = D$ and set the point 1 100 ft. from *B*. Keeping the backsight on *G* turn off 2*D* (i.e., *GB*2), and by swinging the tape with one end held at 1 set the point 2 100 ft. from 1. Turn off 3*D* (i.e., *GB*3) and set the point 3 100 ft. from 2. Since 3–*E* is less than 100 ft., the additional angle to turn off (i.e., 3*BE*) is less than *D*. This *sub-deflection* angle 3*BE* must be the same part of *D* that the *sub-chord* 3–*E* is of *C* (i.e., of 100 ft.).* The length of 3–*E* may be found from equation (13). *E* as located from *B* by deflection angles should check with *E* as located in the first place by chaining from *G* to *E*.

(*g*) *To pick up a tangent.* It often happens that some of the points on the curve cannot be seen from P.C. It then becomes necessary to move the transit from P.C. to the last point on the curve set from P.C. It may even be necessary to set up at several points before the curve is completed. The two following rules should be employed in backsighting and foresighting:

(1) *When sighting at any point of the curve the vernier reading must be equal to the total deflection angle used for locating that point.*

(2) *When sighting along a tangent to the curve at any point occupied, the vernier reading should be equal to the total deflection angle for that point.*

Illustration. In the above rules the total deflection angle for any point means the sum of all the deflection angles from the original tangent to the point. This is sometimes called the index reading. Suppose in Fig. 263 it is necessary to set up at 2 and again at 3.

Set up at 2, backsight on *B* with vernier at zero (since the deflection at *B* is zero), plunge and turn off 3*D*, since the deflection for 3 is 3*D*. This locates 3. Set up at 3, backsight on 2 with the vernier set at 2*D* (since the deflection for 2 is 2*D*), plunge the telescope and turn off $\frac{1}{2}I$ (since the deflection for *E* is $\frac{1}{2}I$).

The student should prove the above method. Prove also that, in accordance with the second rule, if a transit is at 3, the backsight at 2 and the vernier at 2*D*, the line of sight may be made tangent to the curve by setting the vernier at 3*D*.

(*e*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) In the preceding description of the field work it was assumed that 100-ft. chords were used. This is customary in railway work, but if for any reason shorter chords are used the principles still hold good.

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* This is not strictly correct, but accurate enough for most purposes.

(2) The problem has numerous variations. For example, it may be required to run a curve of a given degree. Equation (14) gives the radius, and T can be found from (7). Again, the point of intersection G may be inaccessible. These variations, as well as problems dealing with reverse curves, spiral curves, and other curves, will be found explained in field books for railway work. For anything likely to arise outside of railway work the foregoing principles should be sufficient.

(3) The total deflection or index reading for each point of the curve should be worked out and entered in the note-book before beginning to run in the curve. As a check notice that the index reading for P.T. is equal to $\frac{1}{2}I$.

264. To Lay Out a Circular Curve with the Tape.

(*a*) *By tangent offsets.* This method simply consists in laying off each deflection angle by measuring an offset from the tangent instead of turning it off with a transit. Thus, for example, point 1 is located by laying off BC, found by calculation, and C-1, also found by calculation. Theoretically C-1 is perpendicular to BC, but in practice it is better to establish C and then find the intersection of C-1 with the chord B-1, the length of which is known, than to construct the right angle at C. The formulas needed in computation are easily derived from trigonometry. If D = the deflection angle and R the radius, then:

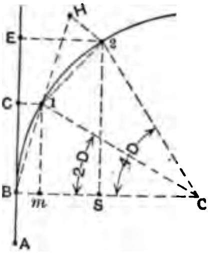

FIG. 264 (*a*).

Distance along tangent	Offset from tangent
$BC^* = m\text{-}1 = R \sin 2D$	$C\text{-}1 = Bm = R \text{ versine } 2D$
$BE = S\text{-}2 = R \sin 4D$	$E\text{-}2 = BS = R \text{ versine } 4D$
For N chords $= R \sin 2ND$	For N chords $= R \text{ versine } 2ND$

More convenient formulas to use where C = length of chords may be found by substituting for R its value $\frac{1}{2}C \div \sin D$:

$$\text{Distance along the tangent} = (\tfrac{1}{2}C \sin 2ND) \div \sin D.$$
$$\text{Offset from the tangent} = (C \sin^2 ND) \div \sin D.$$

In computing, the logarithms of $(\frac{1}{2}C \div \sin D)$ and $(C \div \sin D)$ remain constant, which facilitates work.

(*b*) *By offsets from chords produced.* Produce B-1 to H (Fig. 264 (*a*)), making $1\text{-}H = B\text{-}1$. Then $BO : B\text{-}1 = B\text{-}1 : H\text{-}2$ or $R : C = C : H\text{-}2$.

Hence $H\text{-}2 = C^2 \div R$, or in the case of 100-ft. chords $= 100^2 \div R$.

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* In most cases no appreciable error is involved by calling BC = B-1.

Note that this offset equals twice the tangent offset.

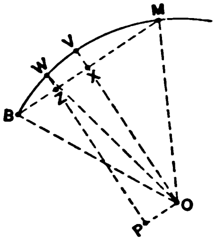

FIG. 264 (*c*).

(*c*) *By offsets from a long chord.* Suppose that two stations, B and M, are given and the length of the curve BVM is known. Then from equation (13), p. 205, $BOM = 2ND$ and the middle ordinate $XV = R$ versine $\frac{1}{2}BOM$

$= R$ versine ND.

If $N = 2$, then $BOM = 4D$ and

$XV = R$ versine of $2D$.

Another form is

$$XV = \tfrac{1}{2}BM \tan \tfrac{1}{4}BOM;$$

or still another form:

$$XV = OV - OX = R - \sqrt{R^2 - \left(\frac{BM}{2}\right)^2} = R - \sqrt{R^2 - \overline{BX}^2}.$$

For any other ordinate WZ a distance XZ from the middle ordinate:

$$WZ = WP - ZP = \sqrt{\overline{WO}^2 - \overline{PO}^2} - XO = \sqrt{R^2 - \overline{ZX}^2} - \sqrt{R^2 - \overline{BX}^2}.$$

(*d*) *By distances scaled from a map.* (1) Plot the curve to a scale large enough so that distances can be scaled as closely as will be required for measurements in the field. (2) Scale ordinates or offsets to some assumed base-line, and enter these distances on a map or a specially prepared sketch for use in the field. (3) Lay out the base-line in the field, and lay off the measurements as indicated on the sketch.

This is a very useful method for work in which extreme accuracy is not required, such, for example, as landscape work.

265. Giving Lines for Masonry. (See also Art. 224.) Excavation is required for most masonry structures. The first step, therefore, is to set stakes which will guide the contractor in digging. Such stakes are set roughly and often very hurriedly, especially if the contractor is already "on the job" and waiting to begin work. Before the excavation reaches its full depth the surveyor usually sets "batter-boards." These batter-boards are horizontal boards nailed to posts or to some other support, such as the wall of an adjacent building. The upper edges of the boards are usually set at some known elevation, say an even number of feet above or below the required elevation of some well-defined line of the structure. They are also set in such a position that by stretching strings from one to another the mason can get the most important lines of the structure (neat lines). The exact points where the strings should be fastened to the boards are marked by nails or by notches cut in the board. Additional suggestions for staking out work are given on p. 159.

Remark. The next article gives in detail the work of staking out a house, and Arts. 272 and 273 give the methods of staking out a retaining-wall and a bridge abutment. These typical cases will suggest methods of procedure in other cases. When a masonry structure is on a grade the work usually involves considerable leveling, examples of which are given in Chapter XXIII on *Leveling—Special Work.*

266. To Stake Out a Building means to establish points which will guide the contractor in building the foundation. It would be of little use to set a stake at each corner of the building, for these stakes would be knocked out in excavating. The usual method is to set batter-boards or corner-boards a few feet outside, where they will not interfere with the work of construction, and to cut notches or drive nails in the upper edges, so that the mason can get his lines by stretching strings between the points thus established. Usually the upper edges of the boards are set at the elevation of the top of the foundation-wall or water-table (or some whole number of feet above or below the top), and thus serve as points from which to measure the depth of the cellar, the heights of walls, and other elevations. The architect or owner usually furnishes the surveyor with a blue-print plan of the building, and with other necessary data, such as its location with respect to street-lines, boundary-lines, and adjacent buildings; also the elevation of the top of the foundation-wall or water-table with respect to some datum, such as a city bench-mark, a merestone, or the water-table of an adjacent building.

General method. The aim should be to accomplish the work with as few set-ups and as few measurements as is consistent with the certainty of correct results. In most cases the best method is to stake out temporarily a reference rectangle, to make sure that it is correct, and then to use the sides of this rectangle as base-lines for locating each corner of the building. The more irregular the outline of the building the more necessary it is to have base-lines. The following illustration shows one method of staking out a building. Study it to see if some other method equally good or even better could have been used.

(*a*) *Illustration.* In Fig. 206 (*a*) the front of the building is parallel to and 10 ft. from the street-line; it is 30 ft. from the western boundary-line.

(1) Located the corners *A*, *B*, *C*, and *D* roughly with the tape so that the contractor could set posts for the batter-boards.

(2) The line of sight along the street-line was obstructed, hence set up 2 ft. out from a merestone at the nearest street-corner and established stations (2) and (3) on a line parallel to and 2 ft. outside of the street-line. Station (2) is 30 ft. from boundary line, and (3) is 40 ft. from (2).

(3) Set up at (2) and backsighting on a near-by bench-mark, marked a horizontal line on each post 3 ft. above the elevation of the water-table. The contractor nailed the boards with upper edges on these lines. (Batter-boards represented by double lines in the figure.)

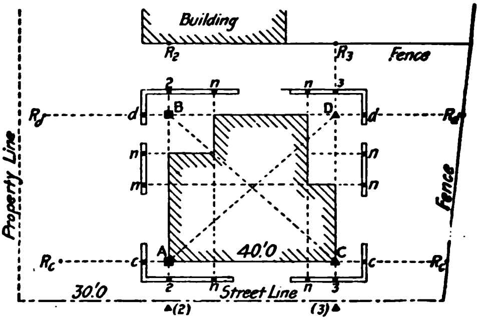

FIG. 266 (*a*).

(4) Turned off 90° from the line through (2) and (3), and established temporary stakes *A* and *B*; also two nails on batter-boards marked 2, and a reference-point on another building marked R_2.

(5) Set up at (3), turned off 90° from line through (2) and (3), and established temporary stakes *C* and *D*; also two nails marked 3 and a reference-point on a fence marked R_3.

(6) Measured the diagonals *BC* and *AD* of the reference rectangle as a check. Found one of them 0.01 ft. longer than the other. Corrected the error.

(7) Set up at *C*, sighted at *A*, established a reference-hub R_c and a nail *c*, plunged, and established a reference-point on the fence R_c and another nail *c*.

(8) Set up at *D*, backsighted on (3), turned off 90° as a check,—line of sight passed slightly to the left of *B*,—error small enough to be ignored. Brought line of sight on *B*, established a reference-stake R_d and nail *d*, plunged and established a reference-point on the fence R_d and another nail *d*.

(9) Set the intermediate nails marked *n* by measuring with a tape

(*b*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) The reference-stakes should be placed where they are not likely to be covered up by building materials, and where they will be of the most use in re-establishing points should the batter-boards be disturbed. (2) It is often necessary to set a new building with its front on line with one already built. If the latter is not parallel to the street-line, stations (2) and (3) should be set on a line parallel to and a definite distance from the front of the old building. (3) Occasionally a building must be oriented with respect to the true north, and then it may be necessary to establish a true meridian.

267. To Stake Out a House-lot. Procure the deed of the land, or consult the town or city records, and from the descriptive clause in the deed stake out the lot, using a method similar to that of the preceding article. When, as is often the case, *the descriptive* clause is so indefinite as to be of little value, the surveyor must resort to other methods. (See article on boundary surveys.)

Practical suggestions. An iron rod or half-inch iron pipe set in the ground with about 3 ft. of it below frost-line will serve as a permanent monument for each corner. Stone posts with tops a few inches below the surface of the ground are much better. In making a record of boundary-lines at least one line should be carefully referenced with respect to permanent landmarks (Art. 260, p. 203).

268. Farm Survey. The following method is recommended: Run transit lines conveniently near the boundaries by the azimuth method, locating stations to the best advantage (p. 149). Take side shots to each corner, and if boundaries are straight, chain the lengths of boundaries as well as of transit lines. If boundaries are not straight, locate them by offsets from a transit line. The azimuths and lengths of the transit lines and side shots to corners as found above are all the data required for the office work of calculating the azimuths and length of each straight boundary line. (The measured length of a boundary-line serves as a check.) From the azimuths and lengths of the boundary-lines thus calculated the area may be computed, as explained in the chapter on *Areas*, Part II.

Note. For a quick rough survey run over the boundary-lines with compass and chain or tape. (See chapter on Compass Surveying.)

269. Survey for an Architect. A map from which an architect is to get the data for locating and planning a building should show a number of things not found on an ordinary map. Moreover, everything of importance should be given by dimensions and explanatory notes similar to a working drawing, so that the architect will not have to depend upon scaling the map. For a city lot the map should show as a rule:

(1) Outlines of the lot with lengths of all boundary-lines and the values of all angles plainly marked on the map. One side at least should be shown carefully referenced with respect to two or more permanent points (Art. 260, p. 203).

(2) Street and curb lines and the line of the street sewer.

(3) Adjacent buildings, large trees, and other objects which might affect the location of the building or the location of windows in the building.

(4) Direction of the *true* north shown by an arrow to enable the architect to plan rooms for exposure,—the *true* bearing of a boundary-line is even better, for it helps to reference that line.

(5) Elevations of the flow-line of the sewer, elevations and grades of all sidewalks in front of or adjoining the lot, and the elevation of the ground itself. If the surface is irregular, contour-lines of perhaps one- to two-foot intervals will best show the elevations of the ground.

Sometimes in addition to the above it will be desirable to give the elevations of water-tables of adjoining buildings, and the location, height, thickness, and plumb of adjacent walls, especially if the proposed building is to fit exactly between two existing buildings;* location and depth of existing foundations; size and location of water, gas, and electric mains, and the location of points where service-pipes come through the curb.

When the building is planned by an out-of-town architect the engineer can often furnish useful information, such as a copy of the city ordinances pertaining to buildings, the nature of the soil where the building is to stand and its bearing power, the city water pressure, and other local conditions.

270. To Locate Machinery, Lines of Shafting, and Similar Objects. The usual methods of field work are employed. In much of the work, however, such, for example, as the alinement of shafting, leveling must be combined with transit work; i.e., the line must be given vertically as well as horizontally. Establish one or more reference-lines for transit work (similar to the reference rectangle in staking out a house, p. 210), and one or more permanent bench-marks for leveling. Establish the location and elevation of all important or ruling points, such as bed-plates and foundations for machines and hangers for shafting. (See Chapter XXIII for method of leveling for a line of shafting.) The data for this work are usually obtained from a previously prepared plan, although occasionally the surveyor is called upon to prepare this plan also.

Surveying methods are now used to a considerable extent in the construction of large machines. (See "The Use of Surveying Instruments in Machine-shop Practice," *Engineering News*, Dec. 11, 1902.)

271. To Stake Out a Road or Highway. Stakes are usually set at least every 50 ft. For an ordinary road, such as a macadam road, the first step is to run the center-line, setting the stakes, however, on either side so that there are two rows of stakes, one for each edge of the road. These stakes are usually located by offsets from the center-line, and if set some whole number of feet (say 3 or 4 ft.) outside of the edges of the road they are less likely to be disturbed.

The second step is to go over the line with the level, establishing grades, and marking the stakes 'Cut' or 'Fill.'

Note. For the methods of establishing grade-points, marking grade-stakes, and staking out city streets and pavements, see Chapter XXIII.

Practical suggestions. (1) For an ordinary country highway stakes should not vary from line or grade more than one tenth of a foot. Of course greater variations might be allowed, depending upon the location of the road, material used, and methods of payment for the work. (2) If extensive cutting or filling is to be done, it often pays to set slope-stakes, as in railroad work. (3) Curves may be staked out according to one of the methods in Arts. 263, 264, p. 204–208. The fourth method (scaling distances), is much used for irregular highways. (4) Where the road curves sharply or the grade changes rapidly it may be necessary to set stakes at shorter intervals than fifty feet. (5) If the highway has not already been laid out, it will be necessary to set stakes for fence-lines or boundaries of the road. (6) Sometimes a separate set of stakes is used for grade, but one set for both line and grade is preferable.

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* The author has in mind a case where it became necessary to practically redraw the plans of a large building because the distances between *existing* buildings on either side were incorrectly given on the map.

272. To Give Lines for a Retaining-wall. (See also Arts. 224 and 265.) In Fig. 272 the section shown of a retaining-wall is only a few feet in length, but the method may be used for a wall of any length. (1) Set stakes *A* and *B*, or if more convenient stakes *C* and *D*. If possible, each stake should be some *whole* number of feet from the nearer end of the wall.

Either line, *AB* or *CD*, will be sufficient for purposes of excavation. The contractor can get the widths *W* and *W'* from the blue print and set his own stakes for the outside lines of the foundation no matter how much the latter may be broken up by steps. The lower course is often concrete and it is immaterial whether the contractor gets the outside lines exactly right or not, so long as he makes this concrete base extend the *minimum* distance each way as called for by the plan; if he should make it a little wider, no harm is done.

(2) When the excavation is well under way, if not before, set batter-boards at a known elevation, and by nails or notches give points for both lines *AB* and *CD*. Very often these lines must be established parallel to some street-line or property line.

Practical suggestions. (1) There are several well-defined lines at the top of the wall and several at the bottom, but it would only lead to confusion to give more than the two lines *AB* and *CD*. These two neat lines are chosen because they are definite lines and moreover determine the finished face of the wall. (2) In giving lines for excavation, it is often more convenient to give parallel lines that are offset a whole number of feet from the required lines. (3) In giving lines and grade for the finished face it may be convenient to use plank set on edge across the trench, as in sewer-work (Chapter XXIII). Sometimes nails driven in the concrete base are used for the lower line. (4) Nearly all walls are so long that they are built in sections. Stakes and batter-boards are set in ad-

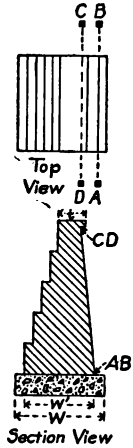

FIG. 272.

vance of the work as they are needed, and strings are drawn from the stakes or batter-boards to the finished wall, or an offset line may be used at a safe distance from the excavation. (5) When the wall is on a curve the stakes must be set near enough together so that the wall, though really built in a series of straight lines, will appear as a smooth curve. Thus, for example, for a curve of 200 ft. radius points should not be more than, say, 10 ft. apart. There are four ways of locating the points: (*a*) By locating the center of the curve and swinging the arc with the tape,—only possible for true arcs of circles of small radius. (*b*) By deflection angles, p. 204. (*c*) By offsets from tangent or long chord, p. 207. (*d*) By ordinates from a convenient base-line, the ordinates having been previously determined either by calculation, or by plotting to a large scale and scaling off such ordinates as it is desired to reproduce upon the ground. The latter method is very useful for irregular curves, such as those which occur in landscape work.

273. To Give Lines for a Wing Abutment. In Fig. 273 the main part of an abutment is shown, but the concrete foundation is not shown. The work is similar to that of giving lines for a retaining-wall as outlined in the preceding article. As suggested in that article, the best line to give is where the face of the main wall joins the foundation, or in this case the line *AB*.

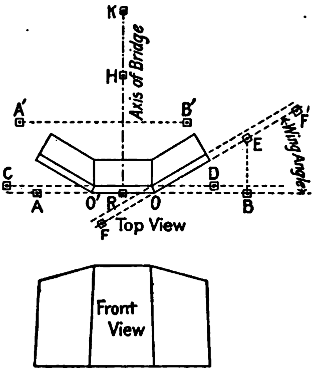

FIG. 273.

(1) Set a stake *R* on the axis of the bridge.

(2) Set up over *R*, and set stakes *A* and *B*; also establish points *O* and *O′*.

(3) Set up over *O*, and turning off the angle of the wing set a stake in line, as *E*. Repeat the operation at *O′*.

Practical suggestions. (1) It may be necessary to set points *A* and *B* some distance from *R*, perhaps on piles or coffer-dam, if construction has already begun. (2) If *AB* comes in the water, it may be necessary to set offset stakes, as *A′* and *B′*, instead of *A* and *B*. The offset distance should be some whole number of feet if possible, and should be plainly marked on the stakes. (3) If for the same reason it is inconvenient to establish *R*, set two points, as *H* and *K*, on the axis of the bridge. The contractor can produce the line through these points with sufficient accuracy for starting the piling, coffer-dam, etc. If the stream is narrow, one of these points may be set on the opposite shore. (4) If *O* is inaccessible, the line *EO* may be established by measuring off either a tangent distance from *AB*, as *BE*, or a tangent distance from the parallel offset line *A′B′*. The right angle at *B* may be laid off by eye, as the length of the wing is usually short compared with the distance *OE*. Since *O* cannot be marked by a stake, set some point, as *F*, on the opposite shore, or if the stream is too wide, set *F′* on the same shore. (5) Stakes will answer for preliminary construction, but they should be replaced by batter-boards giving elevations as well as lines.

274. To Give a Line for a Tunnel. The field work involved is simple or complicated according to local conditions. The simplest case is when a preliminary straight line can be run over the surface of the ground between hubs on the center-line of the tunnel, one at each entrance. It may be necessary to run a traverse in order to locate this line. Once the line is established it may be prolonged a few hundred feet at each end, and permanent targets established which will be used as backsights when, in the progress of the work, it becomes necessary to set up the transit inside of the tunnel. The line may be prolonged from a backsight by the method of double reverse.

In many cases the preliminary straight line between the ends of the tunnel cannot be run because of obstacles, such as a river or a high cliff. In that case the direction and length of the axis of the tunnel must be ascertained either by triangulation or by running a traverse, the closing side of which is not measured, but found by the methods explained in Part II for calculating omitted measurements. The omitted side is of course the required line of the tunnel.

When, as is often the case, the tunnel is on a grade the methods for giving a grade explained in the chapter on leveling are used. Even when the tunnel is level it will be necessary to establish the two ends at the same elevation by running lines of levels between them before the tunnel is started.

When the tunnel is on a curve the work becomes still more complicated, the curve being run in by the method of Art. 263, p. 204, or by some similar method.

275. To Locate Piers for a Bridge.* It is assumed that it is impracticable to measure from pier to pier with the tape. The problem is a double one: (1) To find by triangulation the total distance from a point on one shore to a point on the opposite shore, both points lying in the axis of the bridge; (2) To locate at least one point for each pier by calculating two angles such that when these angles are turned off from different base-lines or from two different points on the same base-line, the two lines of sight will intersect at the required point. The amount of work involved in the second half of the problem depends upon the number of piers to be located.

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* Chapter XVI, on *Triangulation* should be read in connection with this article. For a more complete treatment of the subject the student is referred to a chapter on triangulation for bridge-piers in "De Pontibus" by J. A. L. Waddell (John Wiley & Sons).

(*a*) *The ideal method.* (1) Establish a base-line on each shore exactly perpendicular to the axis of the bridge, extending above and below the bridge. (2) Find by triangulation the perpendicular distance *AB* between base-lines on opposite shores. (3) Having determined where the piers are to be located, lay off above and below the bridge on each base-line the distance from that base-line to the nearest pier, and then in succession the distances to other piers, so that each pier will be located by two intersecting lines making angles of 45° with the base-lines on opposite shores as well as with the axis of the bridge. Any one of the intersecting lines can be established at any time by simply sighting from a point on one shore to a point on the opposite shore *without turning off an angle.*

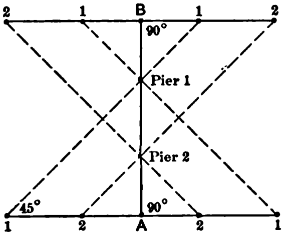

FIG. 275 (*a*).

Remark. The chief advantage of this method lies in the fact that after the 90° angles at *A* and *B* have been laid off and the four angles measured in step (2) to determine the length of *AB*, no further measurement of angles is necessary.

(*b*) *General method.* It is seldom that the ideal method can be employed because the conditions do not often permit base-lines to be laid out on both shores in the manner indicated. There are two alternatives:

(1) Establish base-lines on opposite shores, both above or both below the bridge.

(2) Establish two base-lines on the same shore, one above and *one below* the bridge.

Question. **Two other locations for base-lines are possible: (1) Both base-lines on the same shore and on the same side of the bridge. (2) The two base-lines on opposite shores, one above, the other below the bridge. Why would each of these conditions be unsatisfactory?**

Base-lines should be laid off *approximately* at right angles to the axis of the bridge, but it is not worth while to aim at exact right angles, for much time in the field may thus be wasted, while the time saved in computation is very little. It is better to lay off the base-line in the most favorable location, and let the angle of its intersection with the axis of the bridge be oblique. A general method of procedure is given in the following illustration.

(*c*) *Illustration.* The following steps were taken in locating the center-points *A* and *B* of two piers.

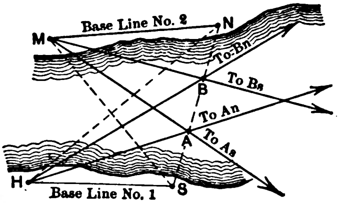

FIG. 275 (*c*).

(1) Established a base-line *SH* on the south shore intersecting the longitudinal axis of the bridge at *S*; also a similar base-line, *NM*, on the north shore.

(2) Carefully referenced hubs *S*, *H*, *N*, and *M*, p. 203.

(3) Measured the length of each base-line a number of times and found its probable value and the probable error, pp. 57–59.

(4) Measured the angles of the triangle *MSN*; also the angles of the triangle *NSH*. Six sets (p. 194) were taken for each angle and its probable value and probable error determined, p. 19.

(5) Computed the distance *SN* from the triangle *MSN*; also from the triangle *NSH*. The two computed lengths checked within the limit of error adopted. (A discrepancy of less than 0.05 ft. (or ⅝″) per 1000 ft.)

(6) Computed the angles *BHS* and *AHS*; also the angles *BMN* and *AMN*.

(7) Made out and blue-printed a triangulation-sheet showing all computed angles and distances as well as measured angles and distances.

(8) Laid off the computed angles *BHS*, *AHS*, *BMN*, and *AMN*. The check on the intersection-points *A* and *B* was tried by sighting from *S* to *N*: this line passed through *B* almost exactly but was ¼″ from *A*, which was within the allowable error adopted for this work, i.e., ½″ for all intersections. Each angle was turned off twelve times.

(9) Set targets *An* and *Bn* on the north shore, and *As* and *Bs* on the south shore, so that the intersecting lines could thereafter be established without turning off angles. Carefully referenced these points.

(*d*) *Practical suggestions. Base-line.* (1) Choose its location with a view to the proper proportions of triangles, p. 193. This will make each base-line approximately equal to the total length of the bridge,—not less, say, than three quarters of that length. (2) Use substantial hubs and supporting stakes, and properly protect all hubs, p. 57. (3) Use a 50-ft. or a 100-ft. tape: it may be well to send it to the bridge company for comparison with their standard. (4) Choose the end of the base-line where all piers are visible, as it is preferable to locate all piers from the same point. When, however, it is impracticable to do this, either because of obstacles to sight or because of too acute intersections, intermediate hubs may be established on a base-line for locating different piers. (5) If shore conditions are unfavorable, it may be necessary to run a broken base-line, or a shorter base-line may have to be expanded, p. 193.

Measuring angles. (6) The transit should be graduated to 20″ or in important work to 10″. (7) The angles should be taken in sets by some such method as that explained on p. 196, and the most probable value and probable error of each angle determined, p. 19. (8) The error in the sum of the most probable values of the three angles in each of the main triangles should not exceed, as a rule, 5 seconds, and may be reduced to, say, 2 seconds in important work. An error of one second in an angle means an error of $\frac{1}{16}$ inch at 1000 ft. (p. 198). (9) If the error in the sum of the angles is too large, determine from the field notes which angle was measured under the most unfavorable weather conditions, and remeasure that angle first: it may save measuring the other angles.

Laying off angles. (10) Lay off the angle for locating a pier and set a wooden target, usually on the opposite shore, where it is not likely to be disturbed. Turn off the angle ten to twenty times *continuously* around the limb, marking the line each time where the line of sight strikes the target. This will result in a series of lines, the average of which, assumed to be correct, is marked conspicuously on the target. Repeat the operation for each intersecting line used in locating each pier. Reference each target. (11) When piers are built in an open coffer-dam, or when staging is used, points on lines may be placed on the dam or the staging and occasionally tested to see that they have not been disturbed. When, however, the pier is built in a movable caisson the latter should be kept in place by daily tests: no angles are turned off, but sights are taken to the targets. (12) For round piers only one point is given (the center), but for rectangular piers an additional point near the periphery must be given to detect any rotation of the pier about its vertical axis during the sinking of the caisson.

CHAPTER XVIII

TRANSIT SURVEYING—PROBLEMS

THERE are certain geometrical and trigonometrical problems which occasionally arise in transit surveying, but which are of too infrequent occurrence to be considered a part of the routine field work. These problems have been grouped for reference in this chapter. Many of them are problems in simple triangulation to which the methods of Chapter XVI apply.

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276. Problems in Triangulation. On pages 64 to 66 are given the so-called obstacle problems. Most of these problems are solved in transit surveying by triangulation. While it is not often necessary to resort to the precise methods described in Chapter XVI, the points emphasized in that chapter should be kept in mind, namely, that the accuracy of any triangulation depends to a large extent upon the *proportions* of the triangles and that very oblique intersections should be avoided. Usually it will be sufficiently accurate to measure each angle with an ordinary transit reading to minutes, doubling each angle if desired, but more accurate methods should be adopted when they are warranted by the importance of the work. If two lines starting from the same point make an angle of one minute with each other, they will be approximately 0.03 ft. apart at 100 ft. from their intersections and 0.3 ft. apart at 1000 ft., i.e., *the error for one minute of arc is 0.03 ft. per 100 ft.* See p. 105. These quantities, if kept in mind, will often suggest the precision with which angles should be measured in order to meet given requirements.

277. Obstacles to Transit Surveying. *Obstacles to alignment* and *obstacles to measurement* give rise to a special set of problems in transit surveying. Many of the methods already given for obstacle problems in chaining (Chapter VII) can be used in transit surveying, and with greater precision. The problems treated in this chapter are those most likely to arise in practice. Two or three constructions are explained for each problem—enough, it is thought, to suggest other methods not only for problems given here, but also for those problems which occur so seldom in practice that they have been omitted.*

Choosing methods. In choosing between the methods given for each problem two things are to be considered: *accuracy* and *time*. When one method seems as accurate as another and it is simply a question of which is the quicker, it should be noted that constructions which require the least time when worked out on paper sometimes require the most time when worked out in the field. Thus, for example, the intersection of two straight lines is quickly found on paper, but not so quickly in the field. Perpendiculars and parallels are quickly drawn on paper, but corresponding operations in the field may involve considerable work.

OBSTACLES TO ALIGNMENT

(*a*) *To prolong a straight line through an obstacle.* Three methods are shown in Fig. 277 (*a*). In all three methods each point at which the transit was set up is indicated by a small triangle, and the angles actually laid off are noted on the figure. The lines to be prolonged are respectively *AB*, *GH*, and *LM*.

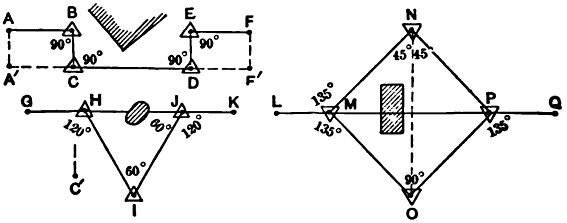

FIG. 277 (*a*).

First method. Lay out a rectangle *BCDE*, the fourth side of which, *BE*, is in the required line.

Second method. Lay out an equilateral triangle, *HIJ*, the third side of which, *HJ*, is in the required line.

Third method. Lay out a square *MNPO*, the diagonal of which, *MP*, is in the required line.

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* For a very complete collection of such problems see Gillespie's *Surveying, Vol. I, pp. 215 to 257.*

The three methods compared. The rectangle method is less accurate than either of the others when the right angles at *C*, *D*, and *E* have to be turned off from short backsights. When, however, the lines *A'F'* and *EF* are established by *offsets* this method is very satisfactory, especially when long sights parallel to the original line can be taken. Thus *A'* and *C* having been established by offsets, the transit may be set at either point, preferably *A'*, and two points *D* and *F'* established in the line *A'C* produced. *E* and *F* may then be found by measurement, assuming that the offsets are short. This is about the only method that is used when the space is too narrow to permit triangles to be laid out. Another method of avoiding short backsights in the rectangle method is to set some point *C'* in *BC* produced, and to use this point as a backsight in turning off 90° at *C*. Similarly set some point in *DE* produced, as far away as convenient, and use this point as a backsight in turning off 90° at *E*.

The equilateral-triangle method requires fewer set-ups than either of the others, and the distance *HJ* is known without calculation. It is a good method to use especially if an equilateral triangle can be run on the other side of the object as a check. The third method has the advantage that no linear measurements are necessary, the work being done wholly with the transit. If, however, the distance from *M* to *P* is required, either the diagonal *NO* must be measured or else *MP* must be calculated from the sides of the square.

Practical Hints. (1) Of course convenient distances arbitrarily chosen may be used for the sides of the figures, but if possible they should be at least from 100 to 200 ft. long to avoid short backsights. For the same reason 120° was measured at *H* and *J* and 135° at *M*, instead of 60° and 45° respectively, it being presumed that the longest backsight could be had in the direction of *G* or *I* in one case and in the direction of *L* in the other.

(2) There are other methods than the three given which are equally good. Of course any system of triangulation may be used, but it is well to avoid the calculation involved in the use of oblique triangles.

(b) To run a line between two given points, when an obstacle intervenes.

First method. *C* is any convenient point which is visible from the two given points *A* and *B*. Make *CD* = *AC* and *CE* = *CB*. Measure *ACB* and *CDE*. Then lay off the angle *CAB* = *CDE*, and the angle $CBA = 180° - (ACB + CDE)$. (Or the value of *CBA* can be found by measuring *CED*. This affords a check.) Transit points and angles actually measured or laid off are indicated on the figure by arrows.

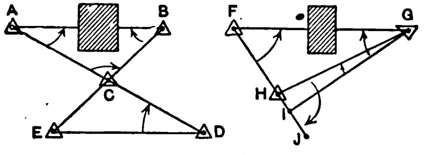

FIG. 277 (*b*).

Another method. Measure *AC* and *BC*, also the angle *ACB*, and solve for the two angles *CAB* and *CBA* by trigonometry.

Second method. Choose *H*, any convenient point visible from the two given points *F* and *G*. Produce *FH* to some point J and measure GHJ. Turn off at G the angle $HGI = 90° - GHJ$. This makes GIF a right angle. Hence $\tan HFG = GI \div FI$. The angle thus calculated is laid off at F, and its complement at G, the angle at G being laid off first to save a "set-up."

Practical hints. The first method requires four set-ups, the second three, but trigonometrical computation is involved in the second. The second method can be used sometimes where there is not room on the ground to lay out the first.

OBSTACLES TO MEASUREMENT

(c) *To measure between two points when one is inaccessible.* The methods given for solving this problem with the tape (see page 64) can be used also with the transit. There are several other methods, three of which are given here.

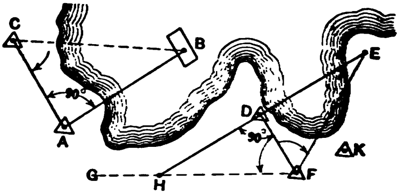

FIG. 277 (c).

First method. Lay off a base-line AC perpendicular to the required line AB, and of *any* convenient length. Then $AC \times \tan BCA = AB$.

Second method. Lay off DF perpendicular to the required distance DE, and of *any* convenient length. Measure DFE and lay off $DFG = DFE$. Then $DH = DE$.

Third method. When both ends of the lines are accessible a third point K may be chosen. In the triangle DKE measure enough parts to obtain DE, as, for example, two sides and included angle, or one side and two adjacent angles.

Practical hints. The second method appears on paper to be the easiest, as no calculation is involved. Considerable work is involved, however, in laying off accurately the angle DFG and in finding the precise point of intersection at H, i.e., the intersection of FG with ED produced. Moreover, many times there is not room to lay off DH.

To check either the first or the second method repeat the process, using a perpendicular or base-line of different length. To check the third method, choose a new point in place of K, and repeat the process. Sometimes it is better to check one method by using an entirely different one.

(*d*) *Special case. To measure the distance between two given points when one is invisible from the other and is also inaccessible.*

One solution. Choose two auxiliary points visible from both of the given points and from each other. The inaccessible point and the two auxiliary points form a triangle, and by measuring the angle at each of the auxiliary points and using the distance between them as a base, the sides of the triangle can be calculated. An auxiliary point, the given point, and the inaccessible point form a triangle one side of which has just been found by calculation, another side (from the given point to the auxiliary point) can be measured, and the angle between these two sides can also be measured. The third side (the required distance) can then be found from these two sides and the included angle.

Remark. This is an example of numerous special cases which now and then arise in practice, the solutions of which depend on various forms of triangulation. The student should draw a figure illustrating the method here given.

(*e*) *To measure between two points when both are inaccessible.* Let AB, Fig. 277 (*e*), be the required distance. Lay off any convenient base-line, as CD, and measure its length. At C measure the angles ACD and BCD. At D measure ADC and BDC. In each of the triangles ACD and BDC one side and two adjacent angles are now known, and hence the distances AC, AD, BC, and BD can be calculated. AB can then be found from either of the triangles ACB or ADB, one computation serving as a check on the other. (Two sides and included angle. See formulas in the back of the book.)

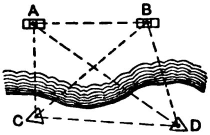

FIG. 277 (*e*).

(*f*) *To measure the height of an inaccessible point.*

General method. In Fig. 277 (*f*), B is the point the height of which is required. The transit is set up at any convenient point A, and the vertical angle BAC is measured, AC being a horizontal line.

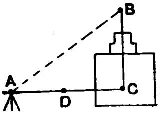

FIG. 277 (*f*).

Case I. *When AC can be measured*

$$BC = AC \times \tan BAC.$$

Case II. *When C is inaccessible* find AC by one of the methods of Art. 277 (c) and proceed as in Case I.

Practical hints. Note that the resulting height BC is the height of B above the *supporting axis of the telescope.* The height of B above any point on the ground can then be found by the usual methods of leveling or by the vertical-angle method just explained. There are other methods of solving the problem, one of which is to establish a point in AC as D; from the triangle ABD find AB and then determine BC. This method is simple in theory but difficult in practice, i.e., it is difficult to measure the angle BDC. (Why?)

278. Perpendiculars and Parallels.

(*a*) *To establish a perpendicular to a given line from any given point.*

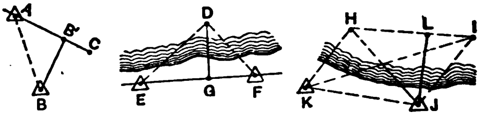

FIG. 278 (*a*).

Case I. *When the given line AC and the given point B are both accessible.* At *any* point A on AC measure CAB, and at B lay off $ABB' = 90° - CAB$.

Case II. *When the given line EF is accessible but the given point D is inaccessible.* At *any* two points E and F measure DEF and EFD. Then $EDF = 180° - (DEF + EFD)$ and $EG = [EF \times \sin EFD \times \cos DEF] \div \sin EDF$.

Case III. *When the given point J is accessible but the given line HI is inaccessible.* Choose some point K, and with KJ as a base-line find the angle JHI by the method of Art. 277 (*e*), p. 223. Turn off $HJL = 90° - JHI$.

(*b*) *To establish a line through a given point parallel to a given line.*

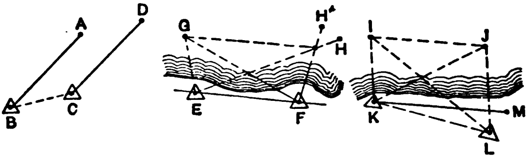

FIG. 278 (*b*).

Case I. *When the given line AB and the given point C are both accessible.* At *any* point B measure ABC, and at C lay off $BCD = 180° - ABC$.

Case II. *When the given line EF is accessible but the given point G is inaccessible.* At *any* two points E and F measure

GEF and *EFG*. At *F* lay off *EFH'* = *GEF*, and at *E* lay off *FEH* = *EFG*. The intersection of *EH* and *FH'* is a point in the required line through *G*.

Case III. *When the given point K is accessible but the given line IJ is inaccessible.* Choose some point *L*, and with *KL* as a base-line find the angle *IJK* by the method of Art. 277 (*e*), p. 223. Lay off *JKM* = *IJK*.

CHAPTER XIX

USE OF THE LEVEL AND THE LEVELING-ROD

MANY of the directions for setting up the transit and for using its telescope (Chapter IX) apply equally well to the use of the level, so that only a few additional suggestions are necessary. Before undertaking any work in leveling, however, the student should practice reading the leveling-rod following the directions given in this chapter. Special attention is called to the "danger-points" or places on the rod where mistakes in reading are most likely to be made.

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279. Setting up the Level. In setting up the level the sole object is to get the axis of the telescope level, and to keep it there, so that the line of sight will always revolve in the same horizontal plane. The process is easier than that of setting up a transit, since it is not necessary to center the instrument over any given point. Plant the tripod legs in the ground so that the head of the instrument is approximately level as judged by the eye. Turn the telescope until it is above two *diagonally* opposite thumb-screws, and bring the bubble to the center of the tube by turning the screws (see p. 88). Turn the telescope until it is over the other pair of screws and level up as before. Turn it back until it is over the first two screws and repeat the process, first over one pair of screws and then over the other, until the bubble stays in the center of the telescope no matter in what direction the latter may be pointed.

Practical hints. (1) The bubble will move in the direction in which the left thumb is turned.

(2) Observe the first four hints for manipulating the tripod given on p. 87, Art 114, and the hints for using the thumb-screws given on p. 88, Art. 114.

(3) Observe the suggestions as to *where* to set up given in Art. 322, p. 251, and note the errors (Art. 349) which arise from setting up carelessly. It is especially important that the level should not settle.

(4) If the level is out of adjustment, it may be impossible to set it up so that the bubble will remain in the center for all positions of the telescope, but errors from this source may be eliminated by making backsight and foresight equal.

280. Use of the Telescope. Suggestions for focusing and sighting have already been given on page 85. Additional precautions are necessary in leveling, for the accuracy of the work depends to a large extent on keeping the line of sight truly horizontal. Anything, therefore, which tends to throw the telescope in the least out of level should be avoided.

The whole instrument, and especially the telescope, should be handled with a delicacy of touch that will preclude any serious disturbance, such, for example, as that which may come from the downward pressure of the hand upon the focusing-screw while sighting through the telescope.

(*a*) *An experiment.* The results of the following simple experiment will surprise even experienced levelmen who have never tried it, and will impress upon the beginner the great sensitiveness of a good level. Carefully set up and level the instrument. (1) Rest the hands rather heavily upon two legs of the tripod and watch the bubble "move out," returning to place when the hands are removed. (It will often move out three or four divisions, which might make an error of 0.15 ft. in a rod-reading if the rod were held 300 ft. from the instrument.) (2) The same results will follow if the weight of the hand rests on the focusing-screw of the object-glass or the eyepiece at the rear of the telescope. *Moral. Keep the hands off the instrument* after it is focused on the leveling-rod. (3) Place several fingers on one end of the glass bubble-tube and observe how the warmth of the fingers will "draw" the bubble. *Moral.* Very accurate work cannot be done when the sun shines on one end of the tube and not on the other.

281. Reading the Leveling-rod. There are two methods, viz.: (1) The rodman moves the target up or down until a signal from the levelman tells him that the center of the target is exactly covered by the horizontal hair in the level; (2) The levelman observes the division on the rod exactly covered by the horizontal hair, and gets the reading directly through the telescope without the use of a target.

The method of reading the target depends upon whether the target is provided with an ordinary *scale* or with a *vernier*. Both cases are explained in the succeeding pages.

Note. In explaining how to read the leveling-rod (Arts. 282–283) it is taken for granted that the target is used. Once having learned to take target readings correctly, it is an easy matter to read the rod directly through the telescope.

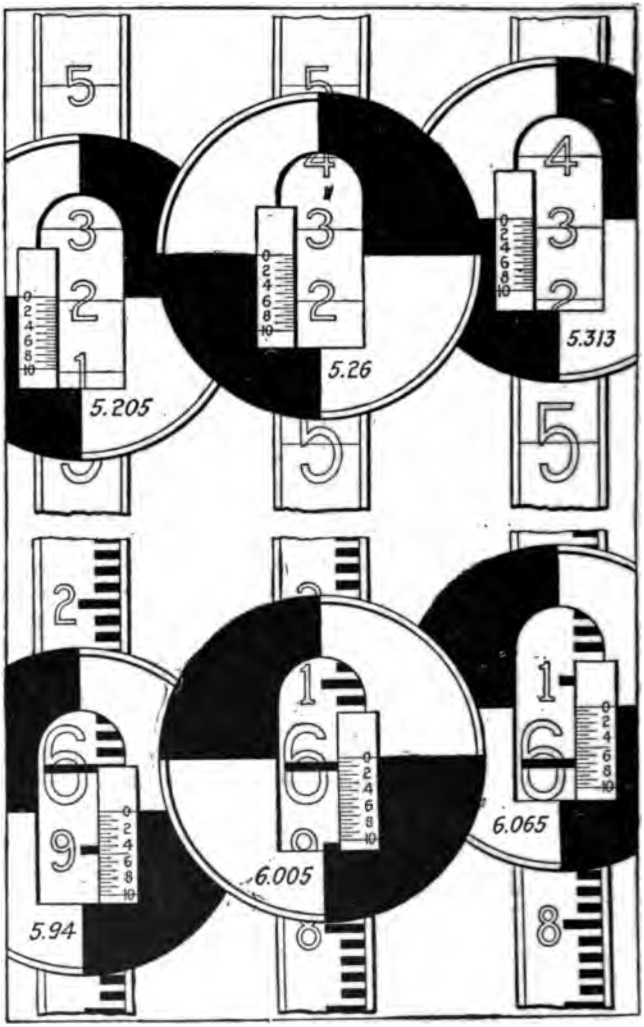

FIG. 282.

282. Targets with Ordinary Scales. The figures on the opposite page illustrate two forms of the *Philadelphia* rod. The scales on all six targets are exactly alike, i.e., each is a tenth of a foot, subdivided into hundredths and half-hundredths (0.005 ft.). In the three upper figures the smallest division on the rod is *one tenth* of a foot, while in the three lower figures each tenth is further subdivided into ten parts, or hundredths of a foot. This latter subdivision is for reading without a target. In target-readings *no attention is paid to hundredths of a foot on the rod.* In the three lower figures readings are taken to the *upper edge of a black mark* instead of to a fine line, as in the upper figures: this is the only difference between the two forms of rods so far as target-readings are concerned. Note that the target-scales *are not verniers.*

(*a*) *To read the rod.* (1) Note the nearest *foot below* the zero or target-center.

(2) Note the nearest *tenth of a foot* below the target-center.

(3) Note the division on the scale opposite the tenth of a foot observed in (2).

(4) If no division on the scale coincides with the tenth of a foot-mark on the rod, note the nearest division on the scale *above* the mark on the rod and estimate the thousandths of a foot thus: 5.31 + 0.003 (estimated) = 5.313. The method of getting the correct reading for each rod (printed on the target) is given below.

Feet	+	Tenths	+	Hundredths	+	Thousandths	=	Reading
5	+	2	+	0	+	5	=	5.205
5	+	2	+	6	+	0	=	5.260
5	+	3	+	1	+	3	=	5.313
5	+	9	+	4	+	0	=	5.940
6	+	0	+	0	+	5	=	6.005
6	+	0	+	6	+	5	=	6.065

(*b*) *Common mistakes.* (1) To omit a zero from a reading; thus, 5.25 instead of 5.205, or 6.05 instead of 6.005, or 6.65 instead of 6.065.

(2) To omit two zeros from the reading; thus, 6.5 instead of 6.005.

(3) To take the nearest numbered division *above* the target-center instead of *below* it; thus, 6.94 instead of 5.94, or 6.105 instead of 6.005, or 6.165 instead of 6.065.

Remark. A study of the figures on the opposite page will show that the above mistakes are natural ones for the beginner to make.

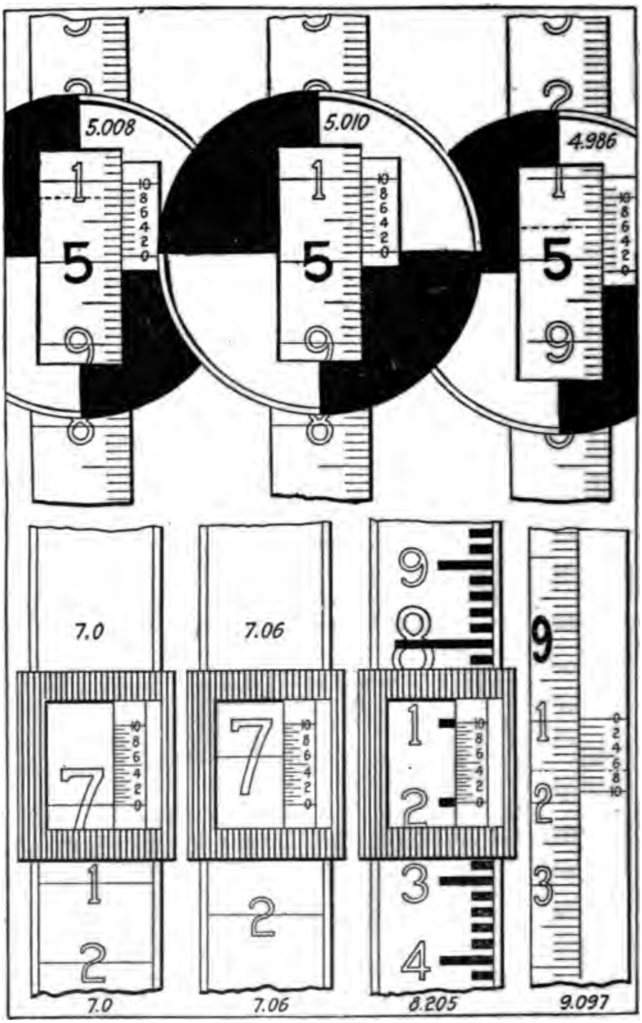

FIG. 283.

283. Targets with Verniers. Hundredths are read on the rod itself instead of on the target, as in the preceding illustration. Thousandths are read from the vernier, not estimated. The graduations on the *New York* rod (three upper figures, opposite page) do not differ from those on the second form of *Philadelphia* rod, except that hundredths of a foot are marked with fine lines. On the target, however, ten divisions correspond to nine on the rod (see middle figure), or each division is $\frac{1}{1000}$ ft. shorter than a division on the rod.

To read the rod. (1) Read feet, tenths, and hundredths by observing the position of the vernier zero. (2) Read *thousandths* by observing what mark on the vernier coincides with *any* mark on the rod.

Feet	+	Tenths	+	Hundredths	+	Vernier	=	Reading	Mistaken readings
5	+	0	+	0	+	8	=	5.008	5.08 or 5.8
5	+	0	+	1	+	0	=	5.010	5.10
4	+	9	+	8	+	6	=	4.986	5.986 or 5.16

284. Extended Rods. When a reading is over 7 ft. the front half of the rod is extended up, and the reading is taken from the back of the lower half. Each of the first three lower figures on the opposite page represents the back of a *Philadelphia* rod, while the fourth figure represents a *New York* or *vernier* rod. The graduations on the back of the rod are numbered from the top *downwards*, or in just the reverse direction from the numbering on the front of the rod. Consequently, in reading the back of the rod, observe the nearest foot and tenth *above* the zero of the scale instead of below it, i.e., read *downward* instead of upward; this is the only difference between reading the back and the front of a leveling-rod.

(*a*) *To use a high rod.* The first step is to set the center of the target exactly opposite the 7-ft. mark on the front of the rod. Before extending the rod the reading on the back should be exactly 7 ft. (see first figure), and the target should be exactly 7.0 ft. from the base of the rod. (See Art. 286 for precaution.) If the front half of the rod with the target fixed at 7 ft. is then raised, say, 0.06 ft., the reading on the back should be 0.06 (see second figure). The reading for the third rod is 8.205. (Mistaken readings 8.25, 7.25.) For the vernier rod the correct reading is 9.097. (Mistaken readings 9.97, 9.107, 8.107.)

(*b*) *Remark.* The chief source of error in reading a "high rod" is to read the back of the rod upward instead of downward. The *Boston* rod (a form not shown here) must be inverted end for end when used as a high rod. On many rods the last graduation on the front and the first on the back is 6.5 ft. instead of 7 ft.

(*c*) *Note.* The upper half of leveling-rods should be graduated so that, if desired, the extended rod can be read directly through the telescope. Some rods are jointed near the bottom so that practically the whole front half of the rod is extended for a high rod. In this case the surveyor can graduate the *back* of the upper half for himself if the maker has failed to do so.

285. The Difference between Methods of Reading the ordinary rod and a vernier rod may be summed up as follows:

Target with a scale	Target with a vernier
(1) It is not necessary to observe the *hundredth* of a foot on the rod; take the nearest tenth *below* the zero of the scale (or *above* it for extended rod).	(1) The hundredth of a foot-mark on the rod just *below* the zero of the vernier (or *above* it for extended rod) must be observed.
(2) Thousandths are estimated.	(2) Thousandths are read from the vernier.

286. To Test a High Rod-reading. When using any rod for the first time the following test should be made: Clamp the target at the highest mark on the front of the rod, set the zero at the corresponding mark on the back of the rod, measure from the base of the rod to the target-center with a steel tape or another leveling-rod, and see if this measurement agrees with the reading (6.5 ft. or 7.0 ft.). If it does not agree, make a fine scratch on the face of the rod to indicate where the target should be set. Set the target at this scratch, extend the rod to any reading, clamp, measure to the target-center, and compare readings as before. Repeat this last step two or three times; it not only shows exactly where to set the target, but it settles all doubt as to how the rod is read when extended. If an error is found, attach a marked tag to the rod or mark the rod in some other way as follows: "The target on this rod should be set at 6.995 instead of 7.0 ft. for all high rod-readings."

Remark. The error described above is very often found in leveling-rods, especially if they have been used for some time. It is often caused by letting a high rod down "on the run," thus jamming the small piece at the upper end of the rod, and gradually knocking it upward. Out of a large number of school rods examined by the author over 75% contained this error.

A second test. Ascertain, by measuring with a tape, the reading at which the scale or vernier on the *back* of the rod should *be set in order that* readings taken on the front of the rod *above* the joint shall be correct. It is not safe to assume that when the joint is closed in perfect contact the readings above it will be correct. (Why is it better to have this joint near the top of the rod than near the bottom?)

287. Use of the Hand-level. Hold the level to the eye and raise or lower the end until the reflection of the bubble is exactly bisected by the cross-hair. The horizontal line of sight thus established is at the elevation of the eye. There are two ways of leveling with a hand-level.

(1) *To stand erect.* In this case the "height of instrument" is found by adding to the elevation of the ground upon which the observer is standing the height of the eye above the ground. Any other point which the line of sight strikes is of the same elevation as the eye. Selecting such a point and moving forward to it, the observer stands with his feet on a level with it, and establishes a new "height of instrument" as before.

Note. The above method is used when leveling *up* hill. In leveling down hill the process is reversed. The leveler moves down each time to a point where he can stand and have the horizontal line of sight strike the point which he just left. He can then find the elevation of the ground where he is standing by subtracting the height that his eye is above the ground from the elevation of the point sighted at.

(2) *To rest the level on a rod* of known height, say five feet. This is more accurate than the preceding method, as the height of instrument is always exactly five feet above the ground upon which the rod rests.

The hand-level is intended to give only approximate results, and is used mostly for locating contours. In this work it is usually necessary to start with the hand-level at the elevation of one of the required contours. This is done by backsighting on a bench-mark or point of known elevation, as explained in the following illustration.

Illustration. It is required to locate contours at five-foot intervals. (See Chapter XXVII.) The elevation of the bench-mark nearest to the starting-point is 93.684 ft. The hand-level, held on a five-foot rod, is moved up or down hill until the line of sight strikes 1.3 ft. (or 95–93.7) from the base of a rod held on the bench-mark. Then the height of the line of sight must be 95 ft., and the elevation of the ground at the base of the rod supporting the hand-level is 95 – 5 = 90 ft.

CHAPTER XX

LEVELING—THEORY

In this chapter the *theory* of leveling is explained without entering upon the practical details of the field work. Leveling terms are defined and forms given for level notes. Practical directions and suggestions for field work will be found in the next chapter.

288. Leveling. A branch of surveying the object of which is:

(*a*) To ascertain the difference of elevation between two or more points.

For example, to find how much a given point on the earth's surface is higher or lower than another given point.

(*b*) To establish one or more points at the same or at different elevations with respect to a fixed point.

For example, to establish points all on a level or on a slope for grading, or to fix the heights for different parts of a structure.

289. Datum. In any given survey all elevations are referred to some common *datum*. This datum is usually an imaginary *level* surface, all points of which are assumed to have an elevation of *zero*. The elevation of any other point is its distance above or below this surface or datum.

290. Datum Line and Datum Plane are two terms whose meanings, though obvious, are less general and comprehensive than the simple term datum. In fact, as pointed out on page 1, a level surface is not a plane surface but a curved surface, hence a level line is not a straight line but a curved line. This distinction is not often made, however, in plane surveying, since curvature of the earth's surface is ignored.

The mean sea-level affords a convenient datum the world over, and elevations are commonly given as so much above or below sea-level. It is often more convenient, however, to assume some other datum, especially if only the *relative* elevations of points are required.

291. Bench or Bench-mark. A fixed point of reference whose elevation with respect to some assumed datum is known; it is used either as a starting-point for leveling, or as a point upon which to close as a check. In a survey of any extent there are usually a number of such bench-marks, established with respect to the same datum and at points where they are most needed.

Illustration. A city establishes an elaborate system of bench-marks so that by starting at any one of them a surveyor can determine elevations with respect to the same datum that the city uses in its engineering work, and if it is more convenient to end at a different bench from that at which he started, he will still have a check upon his work.

Remark. The elevation of the *first* bench-mark is sometimes arbitrarily assumed, as, for example, an even hundred feet, but this is equivalent to assuming arbitrarily a datum one hundred feet below that particular bench-mark instead of assuming the sea-level as the datum. This would be done only when the *relative* elevations are required regardless of the elevations above sea-level.

292. Stations. Points whose elevations are to be ascertained or points that are to be established at a given elevation. Notice that a station is where the leveling-rod is held and *not* where the level is set up.

Remark. In transit surveying the transit is usually set up directly over a station. In leveling, on the contrary, the level is practically never set up over a station, but is placed at any convenient point from which the stations can be seen.

293. Plane of Sight. If a level is in adjustment and properly set up, the *line of sight* will revolve in a *horizontal* plane, i.e., it will always lie in a horizontal *plane of sight* no matter in what direction the telescope is pointed. (See Fig. 294 (*a*).)

Remark. Since this plane is perpendicular to a plumb-line, it is tangent to a level surface at the point where the instrument stands, but, as already pointed out, the distinction between a level surface and a horizontal plane is not an important one in plane surveying.

294. The Two Essential Steps in Leveling. After setting up a level the first step is to ascertain the elevation of its *plane of sight* by measuring *up* to this plane from some point *whose elevation with respect to the assumed datum is known;* then the elevation of any other point may be found by measuring *down* from the plane of sight. These two steps, (1) *measuring up to* and (2) *down from* the horizontal plane of sight, should be the first conception of spirit-leveling, for it is one most helpful in practice, and comprises practically the whole theory.

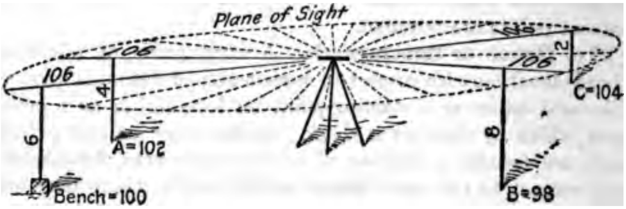

FIG. 294 (*a*).

(*a*) *Illustration.* Let the elevation of the bench-mark in Fig. 294 (*a*) be 100 ft. above some assumed datum. It is required to ascertain the elevations of the ground at *A*, *B*, and *C* with respect to the same datum.

The first step after setting up the level is to ascertain the elevation of its horizontal plane of sight. The line of sight strikes a leveling-rod held on the bench 6 ft. *up* from the base of the rod. The elevation of the plane of sight is therefore 100 + 6 = 106 ft.

If the telescope is then directed to *A* and it is 4 ft. *down* from where the line of sight strikes the rod to the base of the rod, then the ground at *A* must be 4 ft. below the plane of sight, or the elevation at *A* is 106 − 4 = 102 ft. Likewise if the ground at *B* is 8 ft. below the plane of sight, its elevation at *B* is 106 − 8 = 98 ft.; if at *C*, the ground is 2 ft. below the plane of sight, its elevation at *C* is 106 − 2 = 104 ft. Thus the elevations of any number of points may be obtained.

Remark. The leveling-rod is graduated in only one direction, from the bottom up, and so there is really no difference between measuring *up* and measuring *down*, but it is well to think of measuring *up* to ascertain the elevation of the plane of sight, and measuring *down* to ascertain the elevation of points on the ground.

295. Height of Instrument. The elevation of the plane of sight with respect to the assumed datum. Thus, for example, 106 ft. is the height of instrument in Fig. 294 (*a*).

Remark. Notice that height of instrument does *not* mean the height of the telescope above the ground where the level stands, nor does it mean its height above the last station backsighted upon unless, as is rarely the case, the elevation of this last station is the same as the assumed datum.

296. Backsight. A sight taken on a rod held at a point of *known* elevation to ascertain how far the plane of sight is *above* that point, thus establishing the *height of instrument* with respect to the assumed datum. For example, the sight on the bench, Fig. 294 (*a*), is a backsight.

Remark. Backsighting is equivalent to measuring *up* from the point of known elevation to the plane of sight.

297. Foresight. A sight taken on the rod held at a point of *unknown* elevation to ascertain how far that point is *below* the plane of sight, thus determining the elevation of that point with respect to the assumed datum. Thus, for example, in Fig. 294 (a) sights on A, B, and C are foresights.

Remark. Foresighting is equivalent to measuring down from the plane of sight to the point whose elevation is required.

Confusion of terms. The terms backsight and foresight are unfortunate terms because they imply direction. They have nothing whatever to do with direction. A backsight is not necessarily on a point behind the level, and a foresight may be anywhere in front, to one side, or behind, as shown in Fig. 294 (a), where all the sights except that on the bench are foresights.

An effort has been made to avoid this confusion of terms by adopting the term *plus sight* in place of backsight, since the backsight reading is always *added* to a known elevation, and *minus* sight in place of foresight, because the foresight reading is always *subtracted* from the height of instrument. The chief objection to this change is that a *minus* foresight already has one meaning, i.e., a foresight taken to some point *above* the plane of sight, as occasionally happens, for example, in tunnel work or in leveling for a line of overhead shafting.

It will not be necessary for the beginner to ask the usual question: "How can you tell which is a *backsight* and which is a *foresight?*" if he will keep in mind that the object of backsighting is to establish the height of instrument (plane of sight), while in foresighting the object is to ascertain the elevation of some point.

298. Abbreviations. B.S. for *backsight,* F.S. for *foresight,* H.I. for *height of instrument,* El. for *elevation* of a station, T.P. for *turning-point* (see Art. 301), B.M. for *bench-mark,* and Int. for *intermediate stations* (Art. 300).

299. Theory of Leveling. (a) From what has preceded it is seen that the two steps in leveling for any one set-up are: (1) To find how far the plane of sight is *above* a point of known elevation by adding to that elevation the backsight rod-reading, or

$$(1) \qquad \text{El.}+\text{B.S.}=\text{H.I.}$$

(2) To find how far *below* this plane of sight points are whose elevations are required, by subtracting foresights from the elevation of the plane of sight (i.e., height of instrument), or

$$(2) \qquad \text{H.I.}-\text{F.S.}=\text{El.}$$

(b) *Note.* When the points are above the plane of sight the above rules still hold good provided minus signs are given to the sights. Thus, for example, a point on the ceiling of a room is used as a bench-mark, and its elevation above some assumed datum is known to be, say, 112 ft. The leveling-rod, held bottom end up for convenience, gives a backsight reading of 6 ft., or the plane of sight is six feet below the ceiling, or its elevation is obviously 106 ft., i.e., $112+(-6)=106$. Suppose that the foresight reading to some point just below the ceiling is 5 ft. (rod bottom end up), then the elevation of this point is $106-(-5)=111$ ft.

Minus sights seldom occur in leveling except in special kinds of work.

(c) If all the elevations required could be found from one set-up of the level, no further explanation of fundamental principles would be required, but even when the level is frequently moved the work consists simply in repeated applications of the two steps in a sort of endless chain. When it becomes necessary to move the level it may be set up in a new place, the *new* height of instrument ascertained by backsighting on a point whose elevation was found from the preceding set-up, and from this new height of instrument the elevation of new points may be found. Thus the process may be continued indefinitely. The point to be emphasized is *that for each new set-up a new height of instrument must be ascertained.*

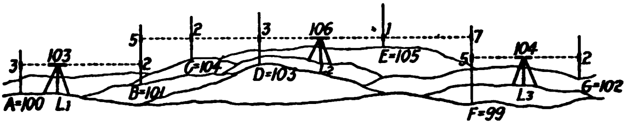

FIG. 299 (*d*).

(*d*) *Illustration.* In Fig. 299 (*d*) it is not intended to represent stations in a straight line,—they may be anywhere to one side or the other of the level as in the preceding figure, p. 236. Let the horizontal broken lines represent *planes* of sight. Let the target-readings at each station be indicated by the number at the point where the line of sight (dotted line) strikes the rod. Either the elevation of the first station must have been previously determined, or, if simply *relative* elevations are required as is often the case, it may be *assumed* as any convenient number, say 100.

Then $100+3=103=$ H.I. when level is at L_1 $103-2=101=$ El. of *B*.
$101+5=106=$ H.I. " " " " L_2 $106-2=104=$ El. " *C*
$106=$ H.I. " " " " L_2 $106-3=103=$ El. " *D*.
$106=$ H.I. " " " " L_2 $106-1=105=$ El. " *E*.
$106=$ H.I. " " " " L_2 $106-7=\ 99=$ El. " *F*.
$99+5=104=$ H.I. " " " " L_3 $104-2=102=$ El. " *G*.

(*e*) *Remark.* The two steps in leveling are not likely to be forgotten if the student will form a mental picture similar to Fig. 294 (*a*) or Fig. 299 (*d*). This is much better than depending upon the memory to retain the formulas given at the beginning of this article. Always fall back on the original conception of leveling, p. 235: (1) getting the distance of a plane of sight *above* some point of known elevation, and (2) getting the distances of points of unknown elevation *below* that plane.

300. Intermediate Stations. A point taken for the sole purpose of ascertaining its elevation, or for the purpose of establishing it at a given elevation. Thus, in Fig. 299 (*d*), *C*, *D*, and *E* are intermediate stations.

Remark.—The distinguishing characteristic of an intermediate station is that only one sight is taken on it,—a *foresight.*

301. Turning-point. A point upon which a backsight is taken in order to establish the height of instrument. Thus, in Fig. 299 (*d*), *A*, *B*, and *F* are turning-points.

(*a*) *Remark.* A turning-point is the only point upon which a backsight is taken, and this is its distinguishing characteristic. It probably got its name, however, from the fact that *two* sights are taken on it, a foresight from one set-up and a backsight from the next set-up; it thus acts as a turning-point without which no relation could be established between the two planes of sight corresponding to the two set-ups.

Either a regular station or a bench-mark may be used as a turning-point, or, some temporary point which is neither a regular station nor a bench mark may be used.

(*b*) The first and last points sighted at are usually considered turning-points. Thus *G* is a turning-point on the assumption that if the work were continued a backsight would be taken on it. *A* is a turning-point because a backsight was taken on it; moreover, a foresight must have been taken at some previous time in order to ascertain its elevation. (Assuming its elevation would be equivalent to foresighting.)

302. Importance of Turning-points—Compared with Intermediate Stations. An error made at a turning-point affects every succeeding elevation, but an error at an intermediate station affects the elevation of only that station.

Illustration. Suppose that in Art. 299 (*c*), Fig. 299 (*d*), the backsight at *B* is read by mistake 6 instead of 5. The new height of instrument would become 101 + 6 = 107, and the elevations of all the remaining points would be one foot too high. On the other hand, should a mistake be made at *C*, reading 3 instead of 2, the elevation of *C* would become 106 − 3 = 103, or a foot too low, but since there is no backsight at *C* (i.e., no height of instrument is ascertained from *C*) none of the other elevations would be affected.

303. Forms of Notes. The forms for level notes differ somewhat for different kinds of work. Standard forms are given in this article. Study these forms in connection with Fig. 299 (*d*). The six columns correspond to the six columns on the left-hand page of the field-book, the right-hand page being used for descriptions of stations and for other notes.

FORM A FOR LEVEL NOTES.

(Left-hand page.)

			Foresight.		
Sta.	B.S.	H.I.	T.P.	Int.	El.
A	3.0				100.
		103.0			
B	5.0		2.0		101.0
		106.0			
C				2.0	104.0
D				3.0	103.0
E				1.0	105.0
F	5.0		7.0		99.0
		104			
G			2.0		102.0
	13.0		11.0		
	11.0	Check			
	2.0				

(Right-hand page.)

Descriptions of stations go on this page. All bench-marks and important stations should be so carefully described that they can be found at any time without difficulty.

(*a*) *Comments on Form A.* In this form of notes, and in all other forms as well, it is necessary to enter the foresights and backsights during the work in the field. The heights of instrument and the elevations of different stations may be left to be worked out in the office unless elevations are needed in the field for checking the work or for other purposes. Even then it is necessary many times to work up only the notes for turning-points.

In this form each H.I. occupies a line by itself. There is no great advantage in this except that in looking over the notes it is more evident, to the beginner at least, which H.I. was used in calculating any given elevation. Thus all elevations recorded between any two successive values of H.I. were found from the upper H.I. if the notes read down the page; from the lower H.I. if the notes read up the page.

Notice also that the foresights on turning-points and the foresights on intermediate stations are kept in separate columns. This is so that the foresights on turning-points may be added together by themselves in checking the notes by the method of Art. 304. The advantage thus gained is to a great extent offset by the additional precautions necessary to avoid entering the foresights in the wrong column.

BS+EV = HI

Form B for Level Notes.

(Left-hand page.) HI - FS = EL (Right-hand page.)

Sta.	B.S.	H.I.	F.S.	El.	
A	3.0	103.0		100.0	Descriptions of stations go on this page. All bench-marks and important stations should be so carefully described that they can be found at any time without difficulty.
B	5.0	106.0	2.0	101.0	
C		"	2.0	104.0	
D		"	3.0	103.0	
E		"	1.0	105.0	
F	5.0	104.0	7.0	99.0	
G		"	2.0	102.0	

(b) *Comments on Form B.* This form differs from form A in two respects. (1) Each H.I. does not occupy a line by itself, but is put on the line with the B.S. and El. from which it was figured. (2) Foresights are all in one column. Turning-points may be easily distinguished in the notes, as they have numbers in the backsight column while intermediate stations do not. (Art. 301 (*a*).) Many surveyors prefer to skip every other line in entering notes, thus affording more room for corrections and for the descriptions of stations on the right-hand page.

By comparing these notes with the arithmetical work on page 238, Art. 299 (*d*), the method of working out the different H.I.s in the third column and the elevations in the last column will become clear. Thus each B.S. is added to the elevation recorded on the same horizontal line to get the H.I. from which the elevations are figured for all succeeding stations up to and including the next turning-point.

This form is more compact than the preceding form and is, perhaps, the one most often used. For profile leveling Form C given below is in many respects a better form.

FORM C FOR LEVEL NOTES.

B.S.	T.P.	H.I.	F.S.	El.	Sta.
3.0	100.0	103.0			A
5.0	101.0	106.0	2.0		B
			2.0	104.0	C
			3.0	103.0	D
			1.0	105.0	E
5.0	99.0	104.0	7.0		F
			2.0	102.0	G

FORM D FOR LEVEL NOTES.

Sta.	B.S.	F.S.	Dif.	El.	Check.
A	3.0			100.0	3.0 2.0
B	5.0	2.0	+1.0	101.0	+1.0 100.0
					101.0
C		2.0	+3.0	104.0	
D		3.0	−1.0	103.0	5.0 7.0
E		1.0	+2.0	105.0	−2.0 101.0
F	5.0	7.0	−6.0	99.0	99.0
G		2.0	+3.0	102.0	

(*d*) *Comments on Form C.* This form differs from the preceding form in the order of arrangement of the columns, and in having a separate column for elevations of turning-points. It is not as common a form as the others, but in many respects it is more convenient. Its chief advantage is: Quantities that are to be added or subtracted are adjacent. Thus corresponding quantities in the first two columns are added to obtain a corresponding quantity in the third column, and from quantities in the third column are subtracted quantities in the fourth column to obtain quantities in the fifth column. It is also convenient to have stations and their elevations in adjacent columns.

(*e*) *Comments on Form D.* This form is entirely different from the other three forms. The first three columns are filled out in the field in the usual manner. The column of differences is found by subtracting each F.S. from the preceding F.S., except in the case of the first F.S. after each turning-point, and this is subtracted from the B.S. on that point. The elevations in the fourth column are found by adding *algebraically* each difference to the preceding elevation. The checks in the last column are found by subtracting from the B.S. on one turning-point the F.S. on the next turning-point, and adding this difference algebraically to the elevation of the first in order to check the elevation of the second.

This form is not much used. Its chief advantage is the check afforded for the elevation of each *intermediate* station. There is no such check in the other three forms. For this reason this *method of differences* is especially useful in working up notes for profile leveling, since the computation for every point on the profile is checked once and turning-points are checked twice.

Another form of notes is shown on p. 256, where the method of keeping level notes is illustrated by several examples from practice.

304. Rules for Checking Level Notes. (*a*) Add all backsights together; add all *turning-point* foresights together; the *difference* between these two sums should equal the difference between the elevations of the first and last stations. The foresight on the *last* station should be included in the sum of foresights although there is no corresponding backsight. The last station *is* a turning-point in the sense that should the work be continued a backsight would be taken on it (Art. 301(*b*), p. 239). In leveling around a closed figure, moreover, the first and the last station coincide, and the difference between the two sums would equal zero were it possible to do perfect field work.

(*b*) Notice that this is a check on office work but not on field work. It enables one to detect numerical mistakes made in working out heights of instrument and elevations of turning-points, but it does not disclose mistakes in using the level, reading the rod, or entering the rod-readings. Moreover, it is not a check on the computed elevations of intermediate stations, because no backsights are taken on such stations.

(*c*) *Illustration.* In form A, sum of backsights = 13; sum of turning-point foresights (including that of G) = 11; thus, $13-11=102-100=2$ (check).

(*d*) *Note.* Another method of applying the same rule: (1) Add the sum of all the backsights to the elevation of first station. (2) Subtract from this result the sum of the *turning-point* foresights: the result should be the elevation of the last station. Thus, $(100+13)-11=102$ (check). See also the level notes on page 257 for another illustration.

305. Differential Leveling. Leveling in which the object is simply to find the difference in elevation between two or more points without regard to distances between the points.

306. Profile Leveling. Leveling in which the object is to get the elevations at *known distances apart* and thus obtain the profile of the surface along a given line. A profile should show all elevations and depressions along the line as if seen from a side view.

Flying Levels. A line of levels to determine approx- levations, run with more rapidity and less precision ual.

Cross-levels. Levels taken to show heights on either the main line. Used in railway and highway work to ine cross-sections at right angles to the general direction oad-bed.

Reciprocal Leveling consists in finding the difference tion between two points by *two* sets of observations as (1) Sights are taken on both points from a level set up e of them; (2) then the level is set up near the *other* n such a position that the longer and shorter sights on points are about equal in length to the longer and sights respectively of the first set-up. The mean of the ults obtained from the first and second set-ups should true difference of elevation. This process eliminates e to lack of adjustment of the level, and in precise level- ects for curvature and refraction.

Establishing Points at Given Elevations is the re- the process explained in the preceding articles. It is ing what "staking-out work" is in transit surveying, a great deal of construction work the two must be com- Setting grade-stakes and fixing heights for different steel and masonry structures constitute a large part of ler's work. For a detailed explanation of such work pter XXIII.

rade. The degree of inclination from the horizontal, as, nple, a rise or fall of one foot measured *vertically* for each measured *horizontally* (a *one per cent* grade), or a grade per 100 ft. (2% grade), or of 5 ft. per 100 ft. (5% grade), se or fall (a level grade).

rade-rod. A *calculated* rod-reading found by subtract- *required* elevation of a point from the height of instru- e., it is the distance to measure *down* from the line of establish a point at a given elevation.

tion. In Fig. 310 (*b*) it is required stake at each of the points *A*, *B*, that the tops of the stakes will tively 98 ft., 102 ft., and 104 ft. me given datum. The height of t, found by backsighting on some known elevation, is 108 ft. The for *A* is therefore 10 ft., for *B* for *C* 4 ft.

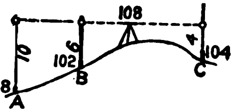

FIG. 310 (*b*).

311. Trigonometric Leveling. Leveling by means of vertical angles and horizontal distances. The theory is based on the trigonometric properties of a right triangle.

FIRST METHOD

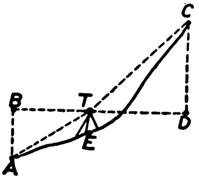

FIG. 311 (*a*).

(*a*) *Illustration.* In Fig. 311 (*a*) let T be the center of a transit telescope. After measuring the horizontal distance BT and the vertical angle BTA, the height BA is found by trigonometry, $BA = BT \times \tan BTA$. In like manner $CD = TD \times \tan CTD$. The distance TE from the center of the supporting axis to the ground having been measured, the relative elevations of A, E, and C are determined. Thus the elevations of any number of points above or below T (or E) may be found.

Remark. The point T is the intersection of three axes, viz., (1) through the line of sight, (2) through the center of the supporting axis, and (3) through the plumb-bob line. This method is the same as that of Art. 277 (*f*), p. 223.

(*b*) If the elevations of points are required with reference to some datum, first find the elevation of T (i.e., the height of instrument) by backsighting on some point of known elevation, as, for example, some bench-mark.

(*c*) When for any reason the *horizontal* distance from T to C (i.e., TD) cannot be measured, TD may be found by triangulation, treating C as an inaccessible point (see 277 (*c*), p. 222), or in some cases it may be possible to measure TC and then proceed as explained in the next two illustrations.

SECOND METHOD

A second method often used, especially in stadia work, is one in which the hypothenuse is measured instead of the base.

(*d*) *Illustration.* Let T in Fig. 311 (*d*) represent the center of a transit, and a a point on the ground underneath T. Let a' represent a target set as far above the bottom of the rod as T is above a. (i.e., $a'G = aT$). Then $Ta' \times \sin a'TD = a'D = Ge$, or the elevation of G above a

(*e*) *Illustration.* Let B represent some point of known elevation *not* under the instrument, as, for example, some bench-mark. With the telescope horizontal set the target at c. Let b be an imaginary point underneath T, of the same elevation as B (i.e., $Tb = cB$). Without

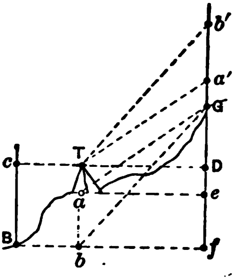

FIG. 311 (*d*).

changing the target hold the rod at G and let b' represent the target for this position of the rod. Then $b'G = Tb = cB$ and $Tb' \times \sin b'TD = b'D = Gf$, or the elevation of G above B.

(*f*) *Caution.* Since all the methods illustrated are in common use, it is very necessary in keeping field notes to make clear what point is taken as a reference-point, T the center of the supporting axis, a a point on the ground under the instrument, or B some point not under the instrument; also whether the base or the hypothenuse is measured.

312. Leveling with the Gradienter. The gradienter is a tangent-screw attached to the supporting axis of the telescope. By means of a micrometer-head small vertical angles may be measured, or large angles may be read with the vertical arc supplemented by the micrometer-screw. As a rule the value of the screw-thread is such that one complete revolution of the screw will move the horizontal hair over a space of one foot on a vertical rod at a distance of 100 ft., so that angles are measured *in terms of the tangent.* If the distance to a rod at any point is known, and the vertical angle is found by the gradienter, the elevation of the point may be determined by trigonometry, as already explained. The distance from the transit to the rod may be found also with the gradienter by turning the screw through one complete revolution. If it passes over one foot of the rod, the latter is 100 feet away, 1½ ft. 150 ft. away, and so on in the same proportion. This method of obtaining distances is similar to the stadia method. Thus, if necessary, the entire work of finding the elevation of a point may be done with the gradienter alone, without using a tape. This is also true of the stadia.

313. Barometric Leveling. Since the barometer is an instrument for measuring atmospheric pressure and since this pressure is less for high altitudes than for low altitudes, differences in elevation may be estimated by differences in barometer-readings. Roughly speaking, the average reading of the barometer at sea-level is 30 inches and the barometer falls *about* one inch for every 900 ft. of ascent above the sea-level.

If the decrease in the density of the air were *exactly* uniform and if the pressure at a given elevation were always the same, barometric leveling would give very satisfactory results.

(*a*) *Atmospheric sources of error.* The pressure of the atmosphere at any point is constantly changing, due to changes in meteorologic conditions. This change may amount to as much as two inches or more. In other words the elevation of the same place as indicated by the barometer at two different times may change as much as 1800 feet. For the same reason barometer-readings taken simultaneously at two different places may be exactly the same and yet the elevations of the two places be quite different. The error from this source may be largely eliminated by taking barometer-readings over a long period of time at different seasons of the year and hours of the day, and thus obtain a mean value, but this method, of course, cannot be used in ordinary surveying.

(*b*) *Temperature* also affects barometer-readings in two ways: (1) it affects the barometer itself, and (2) the weight of the air, for the warmer the air the lighter it is. In a mercurial barometer the height of the column of mercury is affected by the temperature. It is usually claimed that aneroid barometers are compensated for temperature, and though this is not strictly true it is customary to make no correction for the temperature of the barometer itself, as in the case of a mercurial barometer. In using either barometer the greatest uncertainty arises from the method of determining the average temperature of the air-column. Thus, in finding the difference in altitude between two stations, the temperature of the air taken at each station is necessarily the temperature of a stratum of air near the earth, and the common assumption that the average temperature of the air-column, upon which the difference of pressure between the two stations depends, is the average of the observed temperatures at these stations, is an erroneous one.

(*c*) *Barometric formulas.* Numerous formulas, differing chiefly in experimental constants, have been developed for establishing a relation between altitude and barometer-readings.* These formulas may be divided into two classes: (1) *statical* and (2) *dynamical.* Statical formulas assume that the air is in statical equilibrium and are more commonly used. Dynamical formulas take into account the fact that the air is more or less in motion, but require extended observations to obtain the required data. There is little difference in accuracy between the two classes of formulas.

In ordinary work those terms in the formulas which depend upon the temperature of the barometer, humidity, latitude, gradient, and other still smaller sources of error may be ignored, leaving only the mean temperature of the air to be taken into account. *Ferrel's formula*,* which is perhaps one of the best, will then reduce to

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* For a discussion of these formulas see Baker's Engineer's Surveying *Instruments, Chapter XII.*

$$\log H = \log (\log B' - \log B) + \log 60521.5[1 + .001017(t' + t - 64°)];$$

H = difference in altitude between the two points whose observations are taken, B' = observed height of the barometer at the lower station (in inches), B the height of the barometer at the upper station, t' and t the temperatures of the air at the lower and upper stations respectively.

If the mean temperature is assumed as 50°, then $t' + t = 100$ or $t' + t - 64° = 36°$. If the mean barometer reading at the sea-level is approximately 30 inches, the above equation may be written

$$H = 60521.5(1 + .001017 \times 36)\left(\log \frac{30}{B} - \log \frac{30}{B'}\right)$$

$$= 62737 \log \frac{30}{B} - 62737 \log \frac{30}{B'}.$$

Tables may be computed from the equation $A = 62737 \log \frac{30}{B}$ for different values of B, the corresponding values of A being the altitudes above a datum corresponding to a barometric pressure of 30″ (or approximate sea-level), when $t + t' = 100°$. For other than the mean temperature of 50° a correction may be applied as follows:

$$H = (A_1 - A_2)(1 + C),$$

where H = the corrected difference in altitudes of the two stations observed, A_1 and A_2 the altitudes of these stations as taken from Table I, and C a correction for various values of $t + t'$ as taken from Table II.†

For the method of using the aneroid barometer see Art. 343, p. 265.

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* See Appendix 10, *U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey Report* for 1881

† These two tables are given in the back of the book.

CHAPTER XXI

LEVELING—FIELD WORK

THE theory of leveling, explained in the preceding chapter, is exceedingly simple, but no branch of surveying requires greater care in the field work. Accurate results can be obtained only by observing certain precautions which tend to eliminate mistakes and errors. These precautions are so well understood that the methods of field work are more uniform in leveling than in almost any other branch of surveying. It is, therefore, somewhat easier to give definite directions and suggestions, but, as in all field work, it is not desirable to lay down hard-and-fast rules, nor to follow blindly such directions as are given.

314. A Level Party usually consists of a levelman and a rodman. In rough country a third man is sometimes needed, to act as axeman. In very accurate work two rodmen may be used to advantage, and as many as five men may be needed in the party.

315. Equipment for a Level Party. (Things most likely to be forgotten are put first.)

Rodman. Tacks or brads, crayon, stakes, hatchet, tape, note-book, and leveling-rod.

Levelman. Necessary notes from transit party, datum, etc., note-book, adjusting-pin, level.*

Both men should provide themselves with hard pencils, pencil-erasers, and scribbling-pads.

316. Signals. When the levelman wishes the rodman to raise the target he holds his hand *above* the shoulder. The hand held *below* the shoulder means to lower the target. In either case the nearer the target approaches to the line of sight the nearer the hand should approach the level of the shoulder. Dropping the hand to the side means to stop moving the target. A gentle motion of the hand up or down from the shoulder means to move the target *slowly* in the direction indicated. When the target is in the correct position, bring the hands together over the head, which means "all right." Holding the right arm straight up means to "plumb the rod to the right"; the left arm means "plumb to the left."

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* Accurate work in leveling may be done with a transit provided it has a good level attached to the telescope and is kept in good adjustment, a fact which students are slow to realize. Of course the methods of work are practically the same as for the level.

Remark. Any other set of signals may be agreed upon, but they should be clear and unmistakable at several hundred feet away, and should enable the rodman to get the target into position in the shortest possible time. It is essential that the signals to move the target up or down should indicate to the rodman *about how much the target should be moved.* A common fault with levelmen is that of holding the arm horizontal and moving the fingers in such a way that the rodman cannot tell whether the target is to be moved up or down. *Avoid all shouting.*

317. Some Things to Know Before Beginning Work. (1) How to set up a level (p. 226). (2) How to use the telescope to get accurate results (p. 227). (3) How to read the rod (p. 227). (4) What points of the rod are danger-points, i.e., points where mistakes in reading are likely to occur (p. 229). (5) How to test the rod for a high rod-reading (p. 232). (6) What is meant by *datum, bench-mark, station,* and *plane of sight* (p. 234). (7) What the two essential steps in leveling are (p. 235). (8) What is meant by *height of instrument, backsight, foresight,* and *turning-point* (p. 236). (9) Why it is important to take readings with greater care on turning-points than on intermediate points (p. 239). (10) How to keep notes (p. 239), and how to check them (p. 242).

Remark. As soon as the student has become familiar with the fundamental principles and operations in leveling, he should begin a study of the sources of errors and the methods of eliminating or correcting them. (See the next chapter.) This is the quickest and surest way of learning to do accurate and reliable work.

318. Two Methods of Getting the Rod-reading. (See also p. 227.) (1) In many cases, especially at intermediate stations, the levelman can read the rod from the instrument, no target being used. (2) For turning-points, or for any station where the reading is required to the hundredth of a foot, it is usually necessary to use the target. After a target is clamped the rod should be held a *second* time to make sure that the target did not slip in the process of clamping.

Remark. It is a great saving of time to read the rod directly from the instrument; that this is accurate enough in the majority of cases is shown on p. 254.

319. The Starting-point or First Backsight. If only the elevations of stations with respect to each other are required, establish any convenient bench-mark to start with, and assume its elevation as 100 or 1000 or any convenient number great enough so that there will be no minus elevation, i.e., so that the lowest station will have an elevation *above* zero. This is equivalent to assuming a datum regardless of sea-level or of any other datum previously used.

If elevations are required with reference to some fixed datum, it is necessary before starting out to obtain the elevation of some near-by bench-mark previously established from that datum, and then to use that bench-mark as a starting-point. Or, if no bench-mark of known elevation is at hand, one may be assumed, and the levels run; afterward the true height of the assumed bench-mark can be ascertained by running levels from some bench-mark of known elevation, and the false elevation previously obtained can easily be reduced to correspond to the datum.

Illustration. In a city survey, no city bench-mark being conveniently near, a bench-mark was established on the top of a hitching-post, its elevation being assumed as 100 ft. Afterward, by running levels from the nearest city bench-mark, the elevation of the top of the hitching-post with respect to the city datum was found to be 54.6 ft. The elevations already obtained, using 100 as the assumed elevation of the post, were easily corrected by subtracting from each elevation 45.4 ft. (or 100 − 54.6). (See also Form G, p. 257.)

320. The Field-work Routine in differential leveling and in profile leveling is much the same. The chief difference is that in differential leveling all points are turning-points, while in profile leveling there are intermediate stations.

(*a*) *Differential leveling.* The levelman sets his level up at any convenient point where he can sight on a rod held at the starting-point. The rodman holds his rod, moving the target up or down according to the signal from the levelman, and clamps the target at the signal "all right." *He then holds the rod a second time,* and if the levelman again signals "all right" he reads the rod, and, as he passes the level on his way to the next turning-point, the levelman checks the reading. Both men enter the reading, each in his own note-book. A turning-point is then chosen at such a distance from the level that the length of the foresight shall be about equal to the length of the backsight just taken. The target is set as before, a second sight being taken after clamping. The levelman takes up the level and moves on. As he passes the rodman on the way to the next set-up, he checks the foresight reading, and each enters it in his note-book. This completes one step; from there on it is but a repetition of this process.

Remark. It is not always customary in practice for both men to keep the notes and read the rod, but it is very desirable that students should adopt this precaution, especially when they are new to the work.

(*b*) *Profile leveling.* The work is similar to differential leveling except that distances between stations, if not already known, must be measured, and a number of foresights from the same set-up are often taken on intermediate stations. Make it a rule after backsighting on one turning-point to foresight *immediately* on the next turning-point before the instrument has a chance to "get out"; afterward the foresights on the intermediate stations between the two turning-points may be taken.

321. Lengths of Foresights and Backsights. In ordinary work, for the best results, the lengths of sights should not exceed 300 feet nor be much less than 100 feet. On level ground the tendency is to choose turning-points too far apart, thus making the sights too long. On steep slopes the tendency is the other way, but too short sights may be avoided by choosing turning-points so that they "zigzag." (See the next article.) *For each set-up endeavor to make the backsight on one turning-point and the foresight on the next turning-point approximately equal.*

322. Where to Set Up a Level. Off to one side where it is not easily disturbed or jarred, and where, if possible, solid footing can be had for the tripod. Set up *half-way* between turning-points. In going up or down hill one can usually take a much longer sight on the down-hill side than on the up-hill side, especially if a high rod is used, but resist the temptation to do this, and keep the sights on turning-points nearly equal. This can often be done by zigzagging, i.e., working so that a turning-point on the up-hill side, while not much higher up the hill than the instrument, is far enough to one side to make the up-hill sight about equal to the down-hill sight.

On steep slopes the beginner almost invariably tries to take too long sights. Going up-hill he finds that the line of sight is too high to strike the down-hill rod; going down-hill he finds the line of sight too low to strike the up-hill rod. Result, loss of time in setting up the level again.

Nevertheless, in going down-hill, set up the level so that the line of sight will strike near the bottom of the rod. A good way to do when in doubt is to set one leg of the tripod on the ground, and taking the other two legs, one in each hand, quickly bring the telescope into about the position it will occupy when the level is set up; and then sight along the telescope to see where the line of sight will strike.

323. Choosing Turning-points. From the two preceding articles it is seen that the *location* of turning-points is largely determined either by the lengths of backsight and foresight or by the position of the level itself. In choosing the object upon which to rest the rod, keep in mind that it should be something firm and solid, easily described and found, definite and unmistakable.

(*a*) *Remark.* More trouble comes from choosing unsuitable turning-points than from almost any other cause. For example, why choose for a turning-point a small stone in loose soil that may settle half an inch while the rod is being held on it, and then read the rod to the thousandth of a foot? Moreover, turning-points should be found easily, so that if a mistake occurs it will not be necessary to go back to the last bench-mark, but to the last turning-point. Choose some *definite* point, so that the base of the rod will rest always on the same spot. It is well to mark the spot with chalk. Sometimes it may be necessary to drive a stake solidly into the ground and to use the top of it for a turning-point.

(*b*) *A steel turning-point* may be bought or constructed. One form consists of a steel triangular plate about one quarter of an inch thick, with its corners bent down at right angles. The rodman forces these three sharp points into the ground with his foot, and holds the rod on a round rivet-head that is in the center of the plate. The objection to using such a point is that it has to be moved at each new set-up, and thus the preceding turning-points are all destroyed.

324. Holding the Leveling-rod. It is not easy to hold a leveling-rod *plumb* and *still* at the same time, especially if the wind is blowing. If one stands squarely behind the rod and holds it with both hands, he is in the best position to hold it still. Some surveyors, however, prefer to have a rodman stand facing the *side* of the rod, since from this position he can see better whether or not the rod leans toward or away from the instrument, while the levelman can tell by means of the vertical cross-hair when it is out of plumb in the other direction. The vertical edge of a building or some other vertical line may often be used by the rodman as a guide. In addition wave the rod as directed on p. 270; *failure to observe this precaution may result in an error as great as 0.1 ft. for a single sight.*

325. Moving the Target. The signals from the levelman should indicate whether the target is to be moved much or little. When it is nearly correct the rodman will save time by moving it slowly but steadily,—not jumping first too high and *then too* low.

326. Establishing Bench-marks. (*a*) *Permanent.* If a bench-mark is to be permanent, as, for example, a city bench-mark, it should be established with great care, and referenced to several surrounding points. A careful description should be recorded, together with its elevation as obtained by several sets of levels run from other bench-marks. Such bench-marks should be established where they are not likely to be disturbed. If a stone monument is used, it should be set well below the frost-line. Some cities publish a list of bench-marks arranged according to streets.*

Illustration. City Bench-mark, Grove St., near College St., New Haven, Conn. The highest point of the middle post of the three stone hitching-posts on the north side of Grove St., in front of Sheffield Hall. Elevation is 33.006.

(*b*) *Temporary.* If a bench-mark is to be used temporarily, as, for example, during the progress of a survey, definite, solid, and comparatively permanent objects, easily described and found, may be used. A tack in a blaze on the root of a tree is a common example, the letters B.M. and the elevation being marked with crayon in a blaze on the trunk of the tree directly over it.

Other examples. Corner of a stone over a catch-basin, tops of stone hitching-posts, gate-posts, door-steps, highest point of a solid rock, or definite points on solid masonry.

(*c*) *Where to establish bench-marks.* Near the beginning and end of a line of levels; wherever in running levels work is temporarily stopped, as at noon-time or at night; at intervals of several hundred feet; wherever a branch line of levels is likely to be started; at the bottom and top of any high hill passed over; at the crossing of a railway or highway; on each bank of a stream crossed; in a city, near the street corners.

Special kinds of work call for special bench-marks. Thus in making a survey for a building they may be required at the nearest sewer-manhole, on the curb in front of the building site, and on the water-tables of adjacent buildings.

327. Sights on Intermediate Stations may be taken usually to the nearest tenth of a foot, and without using a target. In this matter one is governed by the requirements of the work. It is foolish, for example, to hold a rod on rough, uneven, or soft ground, where a slight movement one way or the other may raise or lower the rod a tenth of a foot, and then read to thousandths or even hundredths of a foot. On the other hand, in some cases, as in giving a grade for a curb, intermediate stakes must be set with greater accuracy.

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* A *Dictionary of Altitudes*, by Mr. Henry Gannett, published by the Department of the Interior, U. S. Geological Survey, gives elevations to the nearest foot of many bench-marks throughout the United States. Stations of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey and bench-marks established by the different railroads are often of great value as starting-points or as points upon which to close for a check.

328. Numbering Stations. Stations are usually numbered in order from the beginning of the work. In differential leveling, every station being a turning-point, there can be no break in the numbers. In profile leveling a turning-point is not numbered as a rule unless it happens to be a regular station on the profile line, but instead it is marked simply T.P. in the notebook, with, perhaps, a description of it on the opposite page.

In profile leveling it is often customary, especially in railway work, to let the number of a station indicate its distance from the starting-point. Thus: 0+50, 1, 1+50, 2+75. and 140+67.8 mean 50, 100, 150, 275, and 14067.8 feet respectively from 0+0 (the first station).

329. Checking Levels. On page 242 is given a method for checking notes, but the only method of checking the field work is by rerunning the levels. It is often customary, near the close of a day's work, to run a set of flying levels back over the line to the starting-point, checking on a few of the most important bench-marks, and finally on the one at the starting-point. In class work, where there are several parties, they should check on common bench-marks established by the instructor at intervals of several hundred feet.

Rerunning a line in the opposite direction will usually result in a greater discrepancy than if it is rerun in the same direction, but the mean result is more nearly correct because certain cumulative errors are eliminated.

330. How Close to Check. In practice the limit of error is determined by the requirements of the work. Results are affected by the instruments used, by the nature of the ground covered, by the time in which the work must be done, by the personal equations of the rodman and the levelman, and by the atmospheric condition.

The error depends to a large extent on the number of "set-ups," and the distance covered. In class work a party, at first, *ought to run half* a mile and back with a difference of less than 0.10 ft. between the assumed elevation of the starting-point and its elevation as found upon returning to it. This is assuming eight or ten set-ups each way. A difference of 0.03 ft. would indicate excellent work for the twenty set-ups, ten each way, but with good instruments and under favorable conditions students should soon be able to come within this limit using ordinary precautions. This does not mean that the absolute error is only 0.03 ft., for some of the errors are compensating, while the cumulative errors are to a large extent eliminated by running in opposite directions.

As a rough check it may be assumed that under ordinary conditions the total error E should not exceed $0.02\sqrt{s}$, where s is the total number of set-ups. If the number of set-ups is not known, it may be obtained by dividing the total distance by *twice* the average length of sight.

The customary limits of error are treated more in detail in the next chapter.

331. Errors in Leveling. In no branch of surveying is a knowledge of the sources of errors and of the methods of eliminating errors more important than in leveling. This subject is treated in the next chapter.

332. Speed. Rapid leveling consists in not wasting time. Time may be wasted in setting up in the wrong place, in setting up too high or too low to strike the rod, in slow manipulation of the level, in getting the target into position, in reading the target, and in waiting for a rodman to slowly saunter from station to station. The rodman should guess about where to move the target or the rod, and should have it there by the time the levelman is ready to sight. He should watch signals closely, and these signals should show whether the target must be moved much or little. Avoid moving the target in jumps first too high, then too low. Often a levelman can call out the approximate reading, thus helping the rodman to set the target quickly.

Remark. At first, speed is not so important as accuracy. The student should not forget, however, that in practice the two should be combined. So much depends on the requirements of the work, on the nature of the ground covered, and on the instruments used, that it is difficult to give an idea of what the speed should be. It may be said in a general way that in class work a level party working under favorable conditions should soon be able to set up and take the backsight and foresight in ten minutes, or, on an average, at the rate of six stations an hour. If the average length of sight is 200 ft., i.e., 400 ft. between turning-points, this means about half a mile an hour.

FORM E

21 Sta.	B.S.	H.I.	F.S.	El.	
B.M.16	6.102	124.318		118.216	
31			5.2	119.1	
+50			6.4	117.9	
T.P.	5.813	126.315	3.816	120.502	
32			8.9	117.4	
B.M.17			7.235	119.080	

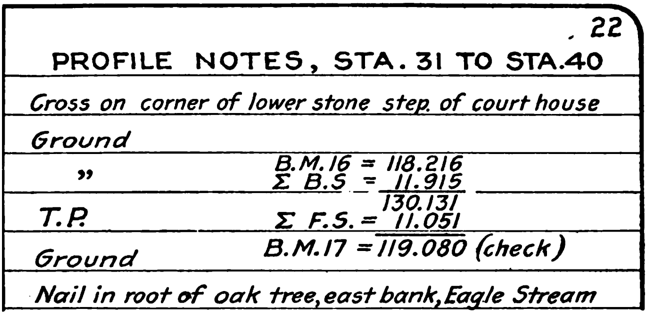
FORM F

21 +S.	B.M. and T.P.	⊼	−S.	El.	Sta.
6.102	118.216	124.318			B.M.16
			5.2	119.1	31
			6.4	117.9	+50
5.813	120.502	126.315	3.816		T.P.
			8.9	117.4	32
			7.235	119.080	B.M.17

FORM G FOR DIFFERENTIAL LEVELING

(1) 159 59.253		59.253		59.253	
+10.250		5.700		5.825	
69.503	+3.745	64.953	+3.747	65.078	+3.747
−6.505		1.953		2.078	
(2) 62.998		63.000		63.000	
+6.872		7.089		7.164	
69.870	+3.818	70.089	+3.817	70.164	+3.817
−3.054		3.272		3.347	
(3) 66.816		66.817		66.817	

FORM E



22

PROFILE NOTES, STA. 31 TO STA. 40

Cross on corner of lower stone step of court house

Ground

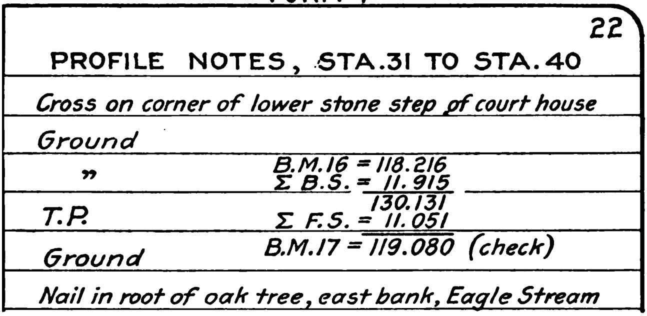
" B.M. 16 = 118.216
Σ B.S. = 11.915
130.131

T.P. Σ F.S. = 11.051

Ground B.M. 17 = 119.080 (check)

Nail in root of oak tree, east bank, Eagle Stream

FORM F



22

PROFILE NOTES, STA. 31 TO STA. 40

Cross on corner of lower stone step of court house

Ground

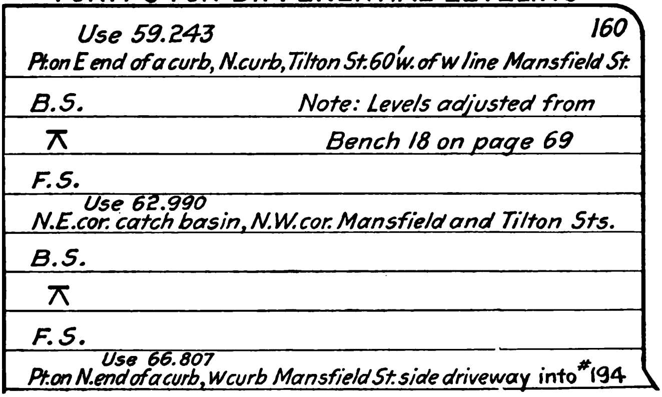
" B.M. 16 = 118.216
Σ B.S. = 11.915
130.131

T.P. Σ F.S. = 11.051

Ground B.M. 17 = 119.080 (check)

Nail in root of oak tree, east bank, Eagle Stream

FORM G FOR DIFFERENTIAL LEVELING



Use 59.243 160

Pt. on E end of a curb, N. curb, Tilton St. 60' W. of W line Mansfield St.

B.S. Note: Levels adjusted from

⊼ Bench 18 on page 69

F.S.

Use 62.990

N.E. cor. catch basin, N.W. cor. Mansfield and Tilton Sts.

B.S.

⊼

F.S.

Use 66.807

Pt. on N. end of a curb, W curb Mansfield St. side driveway into #194

333. Field Notes. Different forms of field notes have already been discussed and compared in Art. 303, p. 239. Forms E and F, shown on pp. 256, 257, correspond to forms A and C on pp. 239, 241. Form G shows the notes for three independent runnings of a line to establish a series of benches for a sewer. The notes for a single running are kept almost entirely in one column, the difference between the B.S. and F.S. at each station being noted in an adjacent column. The form is self-explaining; it affords an excellent comparison of the three results obtained for each B.M., since these results are side by side on the same horizontal line, and it suggests how special forms of notes may be devised to suit special kinds of work. It will be noticed that the final elevations used are 0.01 ft. less than the mean values obtained. This comes from correcting the elevation of the first B.M. to accord with elevations previously used on p. 69 of the field-book as indicated by a note on the right-hand page.

Remark.—Follow the general directions for keeping notes given in Chapter III.

334. Setting Grade-stakes. This consists in setting stakes which shall indicate how much cut or fill is required to bring the surface of the ground to a given elevation or grade. Grade-stakes are also set for curbs, pavements, sewers, foundations, etc. (See Chapter XXIII.) The height of the instrument having been established, and the required elevation of any point being known, the grade-rod for that point can be calculated. (See p. 243.) This is simply reversing the usual operations of leveling. There are several ways in which stakes may be set. (1) *Each stake may be driven so that its top is "at grade."* This is the ideal method, but in many cases it cannot be used, since the top of a stake would come either below the surface of the ground or too far above it. (2) *Each stake may be driven so that its top is one foot, two feet, or any whole number of feet above or below grade.* This is a method often used. (3) *Each stake may be driven approximately to grade, and then a horizontal line may be drawn across one side or the top of the stake may be sawed off, either at grade or some whole number of feet above or below grade.* This can be done when stakes are not easily driven to the desired height. (4) *Each stake may be driven without regard to grade, the elevation of its top afterward ascertained, and the amount of cut or fill from the top marked on the* *stake.* This method makes it necessary for the contractor to measure to decimals of a foot, and hence mistakes are more likely to occur. (5) *A stake may be driven and marked cut or fill so much, with the understanding that the cut or fill must be measured from the* EXISTING *surface of the ground.* This method could be used only for rough grading. Thus, for example, in railway work the preliminary grading can be done from such stakes, but the road-bed is finished and the rails are laid from stakes driven with tops at grade.

(*a*) *General method of procedure.* The required elevation at each point where a stake is to be set must be determined. It is well to do this in the office before going into the field. These elevations are entered in the level notes in the usual way. After the instrument is set-up and the height of instrument found, the grade-rod should be figured for each stake that is to be driven from that particular set-up. If method (1) is used set the target at the grade-rod for any stake, and drive the stake until, when the rod is held on its top, the center of the target is covered by the horizontal hair. If method (2) is used proceed in the same way, except use a "field" grade-rod which shall bring the top of the stake a convenient distance above ground, and a whole number of feet above or below grade.

(*b*) *Illustration.* The required elevation of a point is, say, 120 ft. The actual elevation of the ground at that point, given in the note-book or found at the time by taking a foresight, is 128.4 ft. The H.I. has been found to be 133.6 ft. The *true* grade-rod is, therefore, 133.6 − 120 = 13.6 ft. As the surface of the ground is 128.4 − 120 = 8.4 ft. above grade, the top of the stake should be about 9 ft. above grade or about 0.6 ft. above the ground. Hence the *field*-rod used in setting the stake is 13.6 − 9.0 = 4.6 ft. The stake is marked "Cut 9.0 ft." and the contractor is told to measure from the tops of stakes.

A similar method of procedure may be used for method (3). In method (4) the cut or fill marked on the stake is simply the difference between the elevation of the top of the stake and the grade elevation at that point; in (5) it is the difference between the elevation of the ground and the grade elevation.

(*c*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) First drive a stake *approximately,* being careful to stop before it is too low. Hold the rod and let the levelman indicate how much more it should be driven. (2) Don't split hairs. Keep in mind how close the contractor can work, and drive stakes accordingly. It is folly, for example, to drive stakes to the nearest hundredth of a foot for ordinary grading, the nearest tenth will often do. On the other hand, stakes for curbs and pavements should be set with greater accuracy. (3) Time can often be saved by not using a target at all, i.e., by reading the grade-rod directly from the instrument. (4) Sometimes, as in the case of sewers, some other device than stakes must be used for giving grade (see Chapter XXIII). (5) Stakes should be close enough together to enable the contractor to do his work, but not so close as to be in his way. (6) There are two very common mistakes which occur in setting grade-stakes. One is to observe the wrong horizontal cross-hair (i.e., a stadia-wire), the other is to set the target incorrectly for the grade-rod. The only absolute check is to test the stakes by setting up the instrument in a different position, but errors may often be detected by the eye alone. If the tops of three or more stakes should be on the same line, and any one of them is enough above or below this line to affect construction, the error will be apparent to the eye in sighting across the tops of the stakes. Hence form the habit of *frequently sighting by eye, to make sure that stakes are properly set.*

(7) *The field notes* are kept in the usual form, except that when they have been worked up, additional data will appear in the notes, such as a column of grade-rod values, grade elevations, height of ground above grade, and height of grade-mark above ground. A study of the notes for giving a grade for a sewer (Chapter XXIII) will suggest forms for similar work in setting grade-stakes.

(8) The transit is very convenient for setting grade-stakes (Art. 336.)

335. Marking Grade-stakes. If a stake is at grade it is customary to mark it "Grade," if cut or fill is required it is marked "Cut — ft." or "Fill — ft." The number of feet should be plain and unmistakable. In addition the number of the stake is often marked on another side, as, for example, "20+50" or "A-23." Sometimes when the cut or fill is measured from a line drawn across the stake, an arrow drawn downward for cut and upward for fill is used in place of the words "cut" and "fill." Thus, an arrow drawn downward from the line and marked 10 ft. means "measure down 10 ft. from this line to get a point on grade." Stakes should be marked with crayon which will not be washed out by rain. Too much of the surveyor's crayon on the market will not stand this test.

336. Shooting in Grades. This consists in establishing a line of sight *parallel* to the grade, so that one grade-rod will answer for all the points. It is most easily done with a transit, although it may be done almost as easily with a level. The first step is to establish two fixed points at grade. These are usually stakes, one at each end of the line, or if that brings them too far apart for accurate sighting, extra stakes are set at intervals of, say, 400 ft. The method of procedure for shooting in a grade between any two stakes is described on p. 231. (See also *Leveling with the Gradienter*, p. 245.)

337. Summary—Directions and Suggestions for Spirit-leveling.

(*a*) *Suggestions for the Levelman.*

1. Choose a good place for setting up the level, away from passing wagons or cars, where there is a firm footing, and where sights on turning-points will be equal. If turning-points are established, set up half-way between them. Avoid sights of less than 100 ft. or more than 300 ft.

2. *On steep* slopes resist the temptation to take unequal

sights, and estimate how far to set the level up or down hill from the backsight and still have the line of sight strike the rod.

3. Be sure the level is set up correctly before sighting. All four thumb-screws should bear firmly, and the bubble should be given time to settle, especially if it is at all sluggish. If between sights the bubble "gets out" slightly, bring it back before the next sight. Watching the bubble closely should become instinctive with a levelman.

4. It is not necessary to clamp the spindle. Usually it is better not to do so.

5. Keep the horizontal cross-hair truly horizontal.

6. If the sun shines into the object-glass, and there is no regular sunshade, roll up a piece of paper and tie it around the front end of the telescope instead of trying to shade the glass with a hat.

7. Avoid unnecessary walking around the instrument, and keep the hands off the instrument and tripod when sighting.

8. Make your signals to the rodman definite, and when the target is to be moved indicate whether to move it much or little.

9. In reading the rod without a target avoid errors of even feet or tenths of a foot.

10. Do not split hairs on intermediate stations when only approximate elevations (to the nearest tenth) are wanted.

11. Keep the level in adjustment. Test every day.

12. In ordinary work effects of heat and wind cannot be avoided, though it is just as well to set the level up in the shade. In precise work shade the level.

13. Protect the level at all times. Never go away leaving it standing where there is any chance of its being knocked over.

(*b*) *Suggestions for the Rodman.*

1. Choose suitable turning-points, avoiding above everything else objects that settle or are easily moved. There should be a definite point for the rod to rest on, and do not through carelessness hold the rod on any other part of the object. Mark turning-points or describe them so that they may be easily found again.

2. In choosing a new turning-point go as far from the level as the level is from the preceding turning-point; if this is too

far up or down the hill for the line of sight to strike the rod go off to one side (zigzagging).

3. Keep the rod plumb, especially in the direction toward and away from the level—the levelman can tell when it is out of plumb in the other direction. The vertical edge of a building or other vertical object may sometimes be used as a guide to the eye. *Hold the rod still.*

4. Be on the alert and move the target much or little, according to the signals. When the target is nearly right do not move it by jumps, first too high and then too low. A good rodman should have the target nearly in position before the levelman is ready to sight.

5. After clamping the target hold the rod for a second sight, to see if setting the clamp has disturbed the target.

6. A rod should be tested before using it for high-rod reading (p. 232). In using the high rod extra care is necessary (1) to set the target correctly, (2) to read the back of the rod in the right direction.

7. Look out for errors of an even foot or an even tenth in reading the rod, and especially the error of omitting the zero when there are no tenths, as, for example, 4.35 instead of 4.035.

8. Do not lean the rod against a tree or any other object where it is likely to be knocked down or blown over—it is safer to lay the rod on the ground. Careless handling of the rod is likely to result in bending the clamp-screw to the target. *Never let a high rod down "on the run,"* as it is one of the most common ways of spoiling a rod—and one of the surest.

9. When a leveling-rod is not at hand rough work can be done with a transit-pole. When the differences in elevation of only two or three points are required rubber bands (one for each point) may be used as targets on any straight stick, the actual differences in elevation being shown by the final positions of the bands. The bands furnish excellent sights, especially if paper is wrapped about the stick underneath each band.

(c) *Suggestions for both the Levelman and the Rodman.*

1. It is worth while, for beginners at least, to check each other's rod-reading and for each to keep separate field notes.

2. *Make* backsights and foresights equal. When this is im-

possible, as, for example, in crossing a wide river, use the reciprocal method. (See p. 243.)

3. Take sights on both turning-points before taking intermediate stations. Describe the local bench-marks carefully, not forgetting to establish bench-marks at regular intervals and wherever they may be of use later. (See p. 253.) If anything happens to throw the work out go back to the nearest bench-mark known to be correct and start over again. Write the word "Abandoned" across the portion of the notes that are incorrect. Look out for mistakes in recording. (See p. 274.) If even a single numeral of a reading as entered in the notes is incorrect do not erase, but draw a line through the *whole* reading, and enter the correct reading directly above it. Follow the other directions for taking notes in Chapter III.

Use discretion and common sense in carrying out directions and suggestions. Keep the general requirements of the work in mind, learn what portions of the work can be slighted and what cannot be slighted and still meet the requirements. Not all portions of the work need be done with the same care, as, for example, sights on intermediate stations may be taken less accurately than those on turning-points. (See p. 253.)

338. Duties of Levelman. To run the level, to keep it in adjustment, to care for it and protect it. To keep a general run of the work, seeing that no stations are omitted, that turning-points are properly chosen, bench-marks established, and all work done as expeditiously as possible. To keep notes if it is desirable (and it is, at least in class work), and to "work up" the notes with the rodman each day after the field work is done.

339. Duties of the Rodman. To hold the rod plumb and still, and exactly on the point where it should be held. To be alert and attentive to signals, moving the target to position in as little time as possible, and having set the target to give a second sight. To read the rod, enter the reading in the note-book, and show the rod to the levelman for a check-reading. To choose turning-points, establish bench-marks, and describe them in the notes. To care for the leveling-rod. To work up notes with the levelman at the end of each day's work.

340. Instructions for very Accurate Leveling, based on customary methods for eliminating constant errors, are given in the next chapter.

341. Trigonometric Leveling. *First method.* (See also p. 244.) (1) Measure the horizontal distance from the transit to the point where the elevation is required. (2) Sight on a pole held at the required point and read the vertical angle. (3) Multiply the *horizontal distance* by the *tangent of the vertical angle.* The result is the difference in elevation between the *supporting axis* of the telescope and the point sighted at *on the pole.*

(*a*) *Practical hints.* The difference in elevation usually required is that between two points *on the ground,* one at the transit and one at the sight-pole. Hence as soon as the transit is set up hold the pole at the transit and mark on it the height of the supporting axis of the telescope above the ground. (Wrap paper around the pole and use a rubber band.) Sight on this mark when measuring vertical angles. A level-rod with the target set at the height of the supporting axis is still better.

The horizontal distance may be measured (1) with the tape, (2) with the stadia, or (3) by triangulation, as in the case of an inaccessible height (see p. 223).

If the elevations of many points are to be reduced from vertical angles the use of a reduction table or a special form of slide-rule will save much computation.

(*b*) *Illustration.* A transit stands at Station A. A sight-pole is held so that the height above the ground of the supporting axis of the telescope may be marked upon it. The cross-hairs are then brought on this mark when the pole is held at a second point *B.* The vertical angle as read at the transit is 5° 20′. The horizontal distance from *A* to *B* is known to be 421.6 ft. Tangent of 5° 20′ is 0.09335. Then 421.6×0.09335 = 39.36 ft., the difference in elevation of the *ground* at *A* and at *B.*

(*c*) *The accuracy of the method* may be judged by the following results: If the vernier on the vertical arc reads to minutes the error in reading the vertical angle should not exceed 1′. If, in the above illustration, the heights are computed for three readings, 5° 19′, 5° 20′, and 5° 21′. the three results are respectively 39.234, 39.356, and 39.483, or a difference for one minute of 0.12 for 421.6 ft. If the vertical angle had been, say, 20° larger, the error for one minute would still be approximately the same. Thus, for three readings, 25° 19′, 25° 20′, and 25° 21′, the three results would be respectively 199.438, 199.590, and 199.741, or a difference of about 0.15 ft. in 421.6 ft. It is thus seen that the error which arises from reading the vertical arc is comparatively small. By the use of the gradienter this error can be made much less (see p. 245) *It must be remembered, however, that there are other sources of error.* The level-bulb on the telescope may not be sensitive, and it may also be out of adjustment, i.e., the line of sight may not be horizontal when the reading on the vertical arc is zero. There may be an error in the horizontal distance. Thus, if in the illustration the distance had been called 420.6 instead of 421.6, the error in height for 5° 20′ would be 0.09 ft., and for 25° 20′ it would have been 0.47 ft. It is seen, however, that the method is sufficiently accurate for most purposes, and can be used a great many times in place of a level and level-rod. The method is used for determining the height of an inaccessible point (see p. 223).

(*d*) *Second method.* In topographic surveying the second method (p. 244) is more often used, the hypothenuse of the triangle being measured in place of the base by means of the stadia.

342. The Aneroid Barometer. (See p. 245 for the theory.) The aneroid barometer is less accurate than the mercurial *barometer,* but it is far more portable and convenient, and *therefore it is used* almost exclusively in surveying. It consists of a metallic box from which the air has been exhausted. The varying pressure of the atmosphere acting upon a thin corrugated top of the vacuum-chamber moves it in or out, and this motion is transmitted by multiplying levers, chains, and springs to a pointer moving around a dial which is graduated so that atmospheric pressure is recorded in *inches* to correspond to the varying heights of a column of mercury. In addition the altitudes in *feet*, corresponding to various pressures, are usually given by a second set of graduations—less accurate than the first because dependent upon barometric formulas for reducing pressure to altitude.

In addition to the atmospheric sources of error discussed on p. 245, the aneroid barometer is subject to many instrumental errors such as: (1) Varying sensitiveness or lack of sensitiveness of the corrugated top; (2) incorrect graduations; (3) failure of chains and levers to respond quickly to movements of the corrugated top. The instrument is not intended for accurate work and is used chiefly for reconnoissance or exploration in hilly country, and for rough topographic surveys where it is desired to sketch in contours quickly without great regard for accuracy.

343. Leveling with the Barometer. There are three methods: (1) Single observations; (2) simultaneous observations; (3) extended series of observations.

The method of single observations is the one most used for ordinary work. The barometer is carried from point to point and a single reading taken at each station. The readings thus obtained involve all atmospheric errors, especially those due to the changes in the atmosphere which take place during the interval between observations.

The altitude scale should not be used except for very rough work, and only for the purpose of ascertaining *differences* of altitudes. If the scale is adjustable the barometer may be taken to some bench-mark or point of known elevation and set at the altitude of that point, then the elevations of other points may be read directly from the altitude scale. This means, however, that temperature and other sources of error are ignored, and only approximate results can be expected. A better method is to use the scale corresponding to inches and correct for temperature as follows:

(*a*) *Method of procedure.* (1) Take the barometer-reading (in inches) at the first station or bench-mark, and note the temperature of the atmosphere.

(2) Take the barometer-reading and note the temperature at the second station.

(3) Find from Table I the altitude corresponding to each of the barometer-readings, and subtract one from the other, the result is the difference in altitude of the two stations *uncorrected for temperature.*[*]

(4) Add the two temperatures and from Table II find the correction coefficient C for that sum.

(5) Multiply the difference obtained in (3) by $(1+C)$, *giving to* C *its proper algebraic sign* ($-$ if $t+t'<100°$ and $+$ if $t+t'>100°$). The result is the approximate difference in altitude of the two stations.

(*b*) *Suggestions:* (1) Notice that the erroneous assumption in regard to the average temperature of the air-column (p. 246) is involved, as are all the other sources of error mentioned on p. 245. (2) Readings for altitudes should not be taken just before or after or during a storm. (3) The shorter the time between the readings at two different stations the better. (4) At the beginning of a day's work compare the barometer-reading at some station with the reading at the same station on the day before, and thus get an approximate correction for the atmospheric changes if any have taken place. It is well to do this at intervals during the day, as the pressure at a given point may change very much in a short time. (5) Hold the barometer in the same position when reading it, always vertical or always horizontal, preferably vertical. (6) The barometer is apt to "catch" or "hang"—tap it gently with the finger before reading it. (7) The barometer "drags," sometimes registering at one moment the elevation where it was twenty minutes before. Hence, in ascending a hill consecutive readings are likely to be too low—in descending too high. This dragging is a most common source of error.

(*c*) *Simultaneous observations*, i.e., taking simultaneous readings at different places with barometers which have been previously compared. The aim of this method is to eliminate as far as possible error due to changes in atmospheric conditions during the time which elapses between the observations at the first and second stations. One barometer is kept at the base or starting-point, and it is assumed that whatever change is indicated by this barometer, as read at intervals previously agreed upon, should also be allowed for in reading the other barometer read at the same intervals. This assumption may or may not be true, but the method is the most satisfactory one which the engineer can use when stations are widely separated, since he can seldom carry on a long series of observations at any one station to determine the mean reading.

(*d*) *Extended series of observations* are usually taken with mercurial barometers and cover long periods of time. The mean readings thus obtained often give excellent results, but of course the method cannot be used to any extent in surveying.

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[*] *Tables I* and II are in the back of the book.

(*e*) *Limits of error.* Errors may be expected in barometric leveling of from one to ten per cent, though many instances may be cited where the error was much less than one per cent, and sometimes the error is greater than ten per cent. In ordinary work single observations taken on the same day at frequent intervals will vary from three to five per cent from results obtained by spirit-leveling. If temperature is ignored, that alone may introduce an error of from one to ten per cent. (See correction in Table II for $t+t'=180°$.) By comparing barometers with each other and by taking other similar precautions the errors may be corrected or reduced. In the ordinary topographic surveying where bench-marks have been established, the best method is to start at one bench-mark and close as frequently as possible on other bench-marks; thus, by comparing with the elevations obtained by spirit-leveling, one can get the general run of errors to be expected in the use of the barometer under the given conditions.

CHAPTER XXII

ERRORS IN LEVELING

In this chapter sources of errors in leveling are pointed out, the relative importance of errors from different sources is discussed, and methods of correction or elimination are given. Limits of error are suggested, the precautions which are necessary in accurate leveling are outlined, and a method of procedure embodying these precautions is given. The general discussion of errors in Chapter II should be studied before beginning this chapter.

344. Sources of Errors in Leveling. (1) *Instrumental errors.* (*a*) Errors of adjustments, and (*b*) defects in the construction of non-adjustable parts.

(2) Mistakes in manipulating the level and leveling-rod.
(3) Mistakes in reading the leveling-rod.
(4) Errors in sighting.
(5) Errors due to changes in the position of the level or rod.
(6) Errors due to natural sources.
(7) Mistakes in recording and computing.
(8) Personal errors.

345. Instrumental Errors. (*a*) *Errors due to imperfect adjustment.* Errors are *compensating;* they are practically eliminated if the lengths of the foresight and the backsight are made exactly equal. The adjustments of the level (explained in Part III) are for the purpose of making the line of sight generate a *horizontal* plane of sight (p. 236) when the level is properly set up. If the line of sight is not parallel to the bubble-axis (the principal error of adjustment), it will generate the surface of a cone the axis of which is vertical, and hence rods held equally distant from the instrument will be intersected at the *same* level by an imaginary base of the cone, and the error due to the fact that the line of sight does not move in a plane is eliminated.

(*b*) *Sluggish bubble.* If the bubble is sluggish in its movement, an error may result from the bubble coming to rest in the wrong position, even though it may creep back to the correct position while the sight is being taken. The error is *compensating* and partially avoided by observing the bubble *after* the target is set to see if it is still in the center of its tube, but such a bubble is a constant source of annoyance and delay.

(*c*) *Error in the movement of the object-glass slide.* Error is *compensating,* and is entirely eliminated by making the backsight and foresight equal, since in that case the focus is not changed and hence the slide is not moved.

(*d*) *Error in rod-graduation.* Not likely to be appreciable in ordinary work if the rod is graduated by a reputable maker, but every new rod should be tested.

(*e*) *Error due to a defective joint.* An extension-rod with an abutting joint should be thoroughly tested at frequent intervals by the method explained on page 232. The wear and tear from letting the rod down "on the run" and from other sources may seriously affect this joint (see Remark, p. 232), and failure to test the rod may result in a large *cumulative* error.

346. Mistakes in Manipulation. (*a*) *The level.* Mistakes in setting up, unnecessary clamping of the spindle, errors in centering the bubble, failure to watch the bubble, resting the hands on the tripod or telescope. (See "*An experiment,*" p. 227.) Precautions should be taken to keep the bubble in the center of its tube. If it moves out slightly, bring it back with the leveling-screws. Sometimes in work of great precision mirrors are used (Art. 349 (*b*), p. 272), or a bubble-tender brings the bubble to position with a slight pressure of the fingers (p. 279).

(*b*) *Note.* The levelman should know the error caused by a displacement of the bubble judged by the division-marks on the glass tube. The value of a single division varies greatly for different instruments, but it may be ascertained easily for a given tube. (See Part III.) The value is commonly given in units of angular measure, and in 18-in. levels it is usually from 20" to 30"; in some levels it is 10" or even less (p. 277), while in others it will be found to exceed 60" or 1'. Below is given a table which shows the errors in feet to be expected with instruments of different sensitiveness and for sights of different lengths. "D" in the table stands for one division on the tube.

ERRORS IN FEET CORRESPONDING TO DIFFERENT DISPLACEMENTS OF THE BUBBLE

Sensitiveness of Level		D = 10"			D = 30"			D = 1'		
Deviation of Bubble....		$\frac{1}{2}$D	D	$\frac{3}{2}$D	$\frac{1}{2}$D	D	$\frac{3}{2}$D	$\frac{1}{2}$D	D	$\frac{3}{2}$D
Distance from Rod to Instrument	50	.001	.002	.003	.003	.006	.009	.006	.012	.018
	100	.002	.004	.006	.006	.012	.018	.012	.024	.036
	150	.003	.006	.009	.009	.018	.027	.018	.036	.054
	200	.004	.008	.012	.012	.024	.036	.024	.048	.072
	250	.005	.010	.015	.015	.030	.045	.030	.060	.090
	300	.006	.012	.018	.018	.036	.054	.036	.072	.108

(*c*) *The leveling-rod held so that it leans towards or away from the instrument* will make a reading too large. Error is compensating on turning-points. (Why?) Avoided by swaying the rod slowly backward and forward after the target is set. If the target *center* does not move *above* the line of sight, and coincides in its highest position with the horizontal cross-hair, the target was set when the rod was vertical. (Why?) Otherwise it must be reset. (Satisfy yourself, by trial, of the importance of holding the rod plumb.)

Question. Why is the error not compensating when leveling entirely up hill or down hill?

Remark. For any reading less than 2 ft. it is probably more accurate to have the rodman plumb the rod rather than wave it, for the graduated face may be *raised* when the rod is inclined away from the instrument, since the face is not directly over the point of support. This error is inappreciable for large rod readings. (See Eng. News, Vol. II, p. 35, 1906.)

A better way to make sure that the leveling-rod is held plumb is to attach a plumb-line or, better still to use a special attachment devised for that purpose. Some rods are furnished with angle-targets in which the right-hand half of the target is at right angles to the left-hand half; the horizontal dividing-line is carried over these two surfaces and appears as a continuous and unbroken line only when the rod is vertical.

(*d*) *Allowing dirt or grit to accumulate* on the base of the rod or in either abutting joint is another source of error. (On what part of the rod would readings be affected by dirt in the joint?)

347. Mistakes in Reading the Rod are illustrated on pages 229 and 231. The common mistake of dropping a zero from the reading may be avoided by considering as "danger-points" the first tenth of each foot, and on rods more finely graduated the first subdivision of each tenth of a foot ($\frac{1}{100}$ ft.). Every rodman is likely to have his own "danger-points" which he will do well to keep in mind and to guard against by extra care when a reading is near one of them.

348. Errors in Sighting.

(*a*) *The difficulty of telling when the cross-hair exactly coincides with the center of the target* leads to an error which is hard to avoid; it is, however, *compensating.* The coarseness of the cross-hair, the form of the target, and the eyesight of the levelman, all have to do with such an error. It may help the levelman after looking steadily at a target until he thinks it is in a *correct* position, to close the eye momentarily and then look again before giving the signal to clamp. He should see to it also that the horizontal cross-hair of the level is kept truly horizontal. (See adjustments of the level.)

Sights should be neither too long nor too short (from 100 to 300 ft., see p. 251.)

A common blunder is to mistake one of the stadia wires for the horizontal hair.

Experiment. The following experiment was tried to ascertain the probable error of setting a target at different distances. A level was set up with two leveling-screws in the line of sight. An instructor held an umbrella over the instrument and kept the bubble in the center of its tube, while eighteen students who had used the level just enough to become accustomed to its use, set the target, each in turn, at three different distances, the instructor reading the rod for all settings. The probable errors for a single observation were as follows:

Conditions	Instrument	Length of sights		
		100	200	300
Sun shining,	Level No. 1	0.00196	0.00196	0.00370
Level in the shade,	" " 2	0.00147	0.00229	0.00327
Air slightly boiling at 200 and 300 ft.,	" " 3	0.00130	0.00157	0.00213

Levels No. 1 and No. 2 were 18″ wye-levels, 1⅜″ objective, magnifying power about 35 diameters. Level No. 3 was a 15″ wye-level, 1¼″ objective, magnifying power about 30 diameters. The results for levels 1 and 2 were obtained by one group of students; the results for level 3 were obtained by another group of the same number of men (18). The above results indicate that, for beginners at least, under favorable conditions the chances are even that the error of sighting and of setting the target will not exceed, say, 0.002 ft. for a 100-ft. sight, 0.0023 for 200 ft., and 0.0037 for 300 ft.

The error of reading a rod directly without the use of a target is not as great as is commonly supposed. From a large number of readings taken by a class of over 100 beginners, using "speaking" rods of various styles with graduations more or less dim, the probable errors for a single observation at different distances were found to be (in feet):

Length of sight	50	100	150	200	250	300
Probable error	0.0024	0.0035	0.0038	0.0048	0.0062	0.0065

Comparing these results obtained under unfavorable conditions with those above obtained under favorable conditions, it is seen that target readings are but slightly more accurate than direct readings. Under certain conditions they have been found to be less accurate.

349. Errors Due to Changes in Position of the Level or the Rod.

(*a*) *Settling of the instrument* between the backsight on one turning-point and the foresight on the next. *Cumulative,* tending to make all elevations too high because the foresight is shortened, and the calculated elevation of the second turning-point will therefore be too high. Avoided by setting up the instrument solidly on firm ground, and taking the foresight on the second turning-point immediately after backsighting on the first. For this reason two rods and two rodmen are sometimes used (p. 277). Rerunning in the opposite direction tends to eliminate this error also. On warm winter days when the ground is thawing the error due to settling may be very large.

(*b*) *The level disturbed or jarred* by passing trains, teams, or by the levelman walking around it. Error most likely to occur on loose soil, or on a smooth surface where the tripod-shoes do not catch. On some instruments mirrors are placed so that the levelman can watch the bubble without leaving his position behind the instrument, and in precise leveling he can observe the cross-hair and the bubble at the same time. As a precaution in ordinary work, set two legs of the tripod in a line parallel to the general direction of the stations, and see that all three legs are reasonably firm before leveling up.

(*c*) *Settling of a turning-point* between the foresight and the backsight on it. Cumulative, tending to make elevations too high because the backsight reading will be increased, thus increasing the calculated height of instrument. Easily avoided by choosing proper turning-points. (See p. 252.) Rerunning in the opposite direction tends to eliminate this error.

350. Errors Due to Natural Sources.

(*a*) *Changes in the instrument due to the effect of sun and wind.* The sun shining on a level may cause its parts to expand unequally. For example, in running towards the sun the front wye will expand, making the foresight too high, hence the elevation will be too low. On backsighting the other wye will expand, making the backsight too small, hence the height of instrument too low. The error is therefore apt to be cumulative, making all elevations too low. Again, if the sun heats one end of a bubble-tube more than the other the bubble will move *towards* the heated end. (Try breathing on one end of a tube which is level, or warm one end by holding the fingers on it, watching the bubble to see if it is drawn over.) Errors due to the sun may be avoided by shading the instrument with an umbrella, or working on a cloudy day. The effect of wind and heated air-currents is to make the target seem to tremble or dance, and often renders accurate work out of the question. In precise leveling a tent is sometimes used to shelter the level from both sun and wind. The least wind is usually at daybreak, a time when the atmosphere is also in the best condition for long sights.

(*b*) *Change of length of level-rod* from variations in temperature. Inappreciable in ordinary work, but in more precise leveling it is quite possible that errors from this source may exceed the errors arising from the leveling itself.*

(*c*) *Errors from curvature and refraction.* (1) *Curvature.* The difference between a horizontal line of sight and a level line is about 8 in. per mile, and varies as the square of the distance, i.e., the curvature of a level surface is 0.66725 ft. multiplied by the square of the distance in *miles.* (See foot note p. 2.) The effect of curvature is to *increase* the rod-reading.

(2) *Refraction.* The effect of refraction is the same as if the line of sight were curved downward, or concave towards the earth's surface, and hence the rod reading is *decreased.* The curve is irregular because of varying atmospheric conditions, but for average conditions it is assumed to have a diameter about seven times that of the earth. The correction for refraction is $\left[\frac{(\text{Distance in feet})^2}{\text{Mean radius of earth in feet}}\right]\times 0.07$, where 0.07 is the mean value of the coefficient of refraction.

(3) *Combined curvature and refraction.* The effect of refraction is to reduce the correction for curvature. The following table gives approximate values for the correction for combined curvature and refraction.

The distance *D* and the correction *c* are both in feet except in the last column, where the distance is given in miles.

CORRECTION FOR COMBINED CURVATURE AND REFRACTION †

D	*c*	*D*	*c*	*D*	*c*	*D*	*c*	*D*	*c*	Miles	*c*
300	.002	1300	.035	2300	.108	3300	.223	4300	.379	1	.571
400	.003	1400	040	2400	.118	3400	237	4400	.397	2	2.285
500	.005	1500	.046	2500	.128	3500	.251	4500	.415	3	5.142
600	.007	1600	.052	2600	.139	3600	.266	4600	.434	4	9.141
700	.010	1700	.059	2700	.149	3700	.281	4700	.453	5	14.282
800	.013	1800	.066	2800	.161	3800	.296	4800	.472	6	20.567
900	017	1900	.074	2900	172	3900	.312	4900	.492	7	27.994
1000	.020	2000	.082	3000	.184	4000	.328	5000	.512	8	36.563
1100	.025	2100	.090	3100	.197	4100	.345	5100	.533	9	46.275
1200	.030	2200	.099	3200	.210	4200	.362	5200	.554	10	57.130

† From Johnson's Surveying, p. 597.

An empirical formula giving approximate results is: Curvature and refraction, in feet $= 0.574$ (distance in miles)^2.

The error due to curvature and refraction may be eliminated by making the backsight and foresight equal for each set-up.

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* Wright's *Adjustment of Observation*, p. 372.

351. Mistakes in Recording and Computing. (*a*) *Mistakes in recording* will sometimes vitiate the otherwise careful field work of a whole day. Entering the reading with figures interchanged, as 3.45 instead of 3.54, entering backsights and foresights in the wrong columns, or neglecting to enter a backsight at all, are some of the mistakes which may be avoided, especially in class-work, if the rodman and the levelman will each keep an independent set of notes.

(*b*) *Errors in computing* can usually be discovered by the check given on p. 242.

352. Personal Errors. *The personal equation.* Errors which arise from causes peculiar to the individual are not easily avoided. They may not amount to much in ordinary work, but they are taken into account in precise leveling, especially in comparing results. A man may habitually read the rod too high or too low, or he may manipulate the level in some peculiar manner so that slight errors of the same sign (cumulative) occur. Running levels in opposite directions, the rodman and the levelman changing places before going over the ground a second time, or, in running a single line of levels, changing places at every other set-up, helps to eliminate errors of this kind.

353. Elimination of Errors,—Recapitulation. (*a*) *Mistakes.* Keep in mind the "danger-points" in reading the rod (Art. 347, p. 270). Mistakes in reading the rod and in recording the readings are best avoided by having two men keep independent notes, reading the rod independently, and comparing notes *after* both have read the rod. The levelman should avoid mistaking a stadia-wire for the middle horizontal cross-hair.

(*b*) *Constant errors.* By making backsight and foresight equal for each set-up several constant errors are eliminated, such, for example, as instrumental errors and the error due to curvature and refraction. The level, however, should be frequently tested for adjustment. When it is impossible to make backsight and foresight equal reciprocal leveling may be employed (p. 243). Rerunning a line in the opposite direction tends to eliminate certain other constant errors. The error due to the settling of the turning-point or to holding the rod on slightly different points for foresight and backsight should be avoided—it is usually inexcusable; in many cases steel turning-points are used to eliminate such errors. The error due to settlement of the instrument is reduced by taking the foresight as soon as possible after the backsight, and in precise leveling two rodmen are used for this purpose. The error due to the bubble being out of center is avoided by instinctively glancing at the bubble just before and after sighting, by the use of mirrors on levels of precision, and sometimes by employing a bubble-tender. Errors due to the sun shining on the instrument are avoided by shading the level or working on a cloudy day. The error due to the boiling of the atmosphere is avoided by suspending work during midday hours. Rod errors are avoided by testing the rod graduations, by keeping the base of the rod and the abutting joints free from dirt and grit, by examining the setting of the target as well as the vernier reading for an extended rod, and when the rod is closed by examining the vernier reading to see that it reads 6.5 ft. or 7.0 ft.. not depending upon the abutting end to bring it back to place. These last errors are eliminated altogether by using a "one-piece" rod—many surveyors will use no other in important work. The error due to not plumbing the rod is avoided by waving the rod, and in precise work by using an attachment devised for that purpose. For an illustration of leveling in which many of the foregoing precautions were adopted see page 277.

(c) *Accidental errors,* such as small errors in sighting and errors resulting from small disturbances of the instrument, can be reduced only by adjusting independent or related observations.

354. Customary Limits of Error. Probably in no branch of surveying does the law of accidental errors (that the total error will vary as the square root of the number of observations (Art. 71, p. 45)) accord more closely with experience than in leveling. This is because constant errors are more easily eliminated and hence accidental errors are likely to predominate, even in ordinary work. There are two ways in which the precision of leveling may be judged. (1) By comparing the two elevations of the same point as found from independent lines of leveling,—the difference is not an error but a discrepancy. (2) By the difference between the *assumed* elevation of some starting-point and the elevation found by completing a circuit, i.e., returning to the same starting-point. This is a *true* error, called the closing error of leveling.

In either case the total error of a line of levels may be expected to vary about as the square root of the number of set-ups. When, however, the number of set-ups per mile is practically constant it is more convenient to express the error in terms of the distance; thus,

$$\text{Error in Feet} = \text{Constant}\sqrt{\text{Distance in Miles}}, \text{ or } E = C\sqrt{M}.$$

The value of C will depend, of course, upon the purpose of the work, the period of time in which it must be done, the expense warranted, and other local conditions. There seems to be, however, a more general agreement as to the allowable error in leveling than there is in regard to limits of error for chaining or for angular measurements. The most common value for C is 0.05. This is for ordinary work where reasonable precautions have been taken to eliminate constant errors, and where speed will average, say, two or three miles per day, or where a single instrument duplicates from 1 to 1½ miles per day. This is the coefficient adopted by the officers of the U. S. Geological Survey "after careful consideration of the needs of the work and of the standards set by other organizations." In precise leveling a good average value for C is 0.02, and 0.02 ft. $\sqrt{M}$ is practically the limit adopted by the U. S. Geodetic and Coast Survey and the Mississippi River Commission. Under favorable conditions the error may be kept within this limit working with a good wye-level, but it will be necessary to adopt a method of procedure somewhat similar to that used in precise leveling. (See p. 277 for an illustration of the precautions taken to attain a degree of precision of $0.02\sqrt{M}$ or better). The maximum permissible error for leveling in the Chicago Sanitary District was about 0.012 ft. $\sqrt{M}$.

Note. In an example of railway location the discrepancies between elevations obtained in the preliminary location and those obtained in the final location are given for a number of stations at varying distances apart throughout about 70 miles of "66 feet country." * The average difference between the divergence at one point and that at another is stated as 0.023 per 100 stations. This, however, is misleading as the total discrepancy at any one station, found from the values given, if substituted for E in $E = C\sqrt{M}$, gives in some cases a value as high as 0.17 for C with perhaps an average value of about 0.12.

The character of the ground affects the precision of leveling. For example, the degree of precision attained in precise leveling in India and also in Switzerland varied from about 0.013

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* Beahan's *Railway Location*, p. 106.

ft. for nealy level ground to about 0.033 ft. for gradients entirely between 1 in 20 and 1 in 10, the quantity in each case being the average discrepancy per mile between two observers.*

Beyond a certain limit a small increase in precision requires a large increase of effort, and the difference in precision between ordinary leveling and precise leveling is not at all in proportion to the difference in the skill and care required.

The following table, computed from the formula $E=C\sqrt{M}$, gives the permissible error in *feet* for different distances in miles for different coefficients of precision.

PERMISSIBLE ERRORS IN LEVELING FOR DIFFERENT COEFFICIENTS AND DIFFERENT DISTANCES

Miles.	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.01
0.5	0.035	0.028	0.021	0.014	0.007
1	.050	.040	.030	.020	.010
2	.070	.056	.042	.028	.014
3	.086	.069	.052	.035	.017
4	.100	.080	.060	.040	.020
5	.112	.089	.067	.045	.022
6	.122	.098	.073	.049	.024
7	.132	.106	.079	.053	.026
8	.141	.113	.085	.057	.028
9	.150	.120	.090	.060	.030
10	.158	.126	.095	.063	.032
15	.194	.155	.116	.077	.039
20	.224	.179	.134	.089	.045

Illustration of the use of the table. What discrepancy between two lines of levels is permissible at the end of four miles if 0.05 is the adopted value of *C*? Answer 0.1 ft. What is the permissible error of closure of a circuit 6 miles long if 0.02 is the value adopted for *C*? Answer 0.049 ft.

355. Instructions for Accurate Leveling. The following instructions and method of procedure were taken from the report on spirit-leveling along the line of the Barge and Canal Survey, by the state engineer and surveyor of New York. A wye-level was used of 16½″ focal length; clear objective aperture of 1¼ in.; magnifying power 35 diameters; value of one division on the bubble-tube 7.04 seconds.

The instructions embody most of the precautions already given for eliminating errors, and they indicate the care required to attain a degree of precision of $0.02\sqrt{M}$ or better.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR LEVELING

(1) All lines forward and backward shall be run with two rodmen.

(2) Each rodman shall keep separate notes of rod-readings on all turning-points and bench-marks he holds on, and compute the elevations of

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* See Baker's *Surveying Instruments*, p. 283.

the same when furnished with the height of instrument by the recorder. Each rodman, when he receives the signal "all right" from the instrument man, shall at once read the rod and record the reading in the book provided. The recorder shall always read the rod after the rodman, make the necessary calculations, and compare the results with the rodman. If the results differ, each shall again read the rod before comparing results, and if the readings of the rod differ, another setting of the target shall be made by the instrument man.

(3) Work must not be attempted during high wind or when the air is "boiling" badly. During very hot weather an effort should be made to begin work very early and remain out late, rather than to work during midday.

(4) Foresights and backsights should be of equal length, and no sights over 300 ft. shall be taken unless unavoidable circumstances necessitate the same, as in the case of crossing rivers or deep ravines. In such cases extra precautions must be taken, and the average of repeated readings at changed positions of rod and instrument taken.*

(5) If it be impracticable to take equal foresights and backsights, as soon as the steep slope or river crossing is passed, enough unequal sights shall be taken to make each set balance.

(6) Distance along railroads may be taken by counting rails; at other times stadia or pacing may be used.

(7) The instrument must always be leveled exactly before setting the target. After setting it and before giving the signal "all right," the bubble must be examined. One rod, No. 1 or No. 2, should always be read first, so that one rod is used as foresight first at one set-up and as backsight first at the next set-up. The bubble-tender shall always stand on the same side of the level-tube when the reading is made, moving around the tripod as the level-tube is reversed.

(8) The level must be examined daily or oftener, if necessary, for adjustment, the especially important adjustments being the line of collimation and the level-bubble.

(9) The steel pegs as furnished must be used as turning-points in all cases. These shall be driven firmly in the ground, and the backsight peg shall not be removed until the foresight reading is completed, and the recorder and rodman have compared results on the backsight.

(10) Plumbing-levels must always be used and kept in adjustment.

(11) Bench-marks or turning-points left at the termination of work at night, or for rain or other causes, must be selected with great care, and located in such a manner that there will be no danger of their being disturbed or tampered with in order that the rod may again be held on the exact spot.

(12) Permanent bench-marks shall be clearly described, not only with reference to the nearest base-line station, but also to existing and easily identified features of the ground. A sketch shall be made showing the bench-mark and the reference-marks referred to.

(13) All circuit closures or checks by duplicate lines shall be distinctly noted, and a reference made to check levels.

Duplicate lines of levels shall be run forward and backward, and the error of closure of the two runnings shall fall within

$$.020 \text{ ft.} \sqrt{\text{distance in miles between benches}},\dagger$$

or the lines shall be re-run.

Bench-marks shall be established at intervals of one-half to one mile.

On the Champlain Canal a single line shall be run from the Erie Canal to Whitehall. The error of closure with the U. S. D. W. shall fall within $.050 \text{ ft.} \sqrt{\text{distance in miles between the benches}}$ or the lines shall be re-run.‡

The number of men in each party shall consist of five,—an instrument

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* See p. 243 for reciprocal leveling.

† After the levels had been run from Albany to Herkimer, the results were so good that the limit of error was reduced to

$$.015\sqrt{\text{distance in miles between benches}}.$$

‡ *See p. 276 for* the explanation of this formula.

an, a recorder, two rodmen, and an umbrella man. The instrument ust always be shaded from the sun, both during the set-ups and in moving om point to point.

Procedure of Work

Starting from a bench or turning-point, the instrument man paced along e towpath from 200 to 250 ft., and set up the level, protecting it by the nbrella or wind-shield as occasion required.

Rodman No. 1 remained at the bench. and rodman No. 2, starting at e same bench, paced to and beyond the instrument till he reached a int as many paces beyond the instrument as the instrument was from d No. 1, at which point he drove the steel pin.

Having carefully leveled the instrument, the leveler set the target on rod o. 1 as a backsight, and then, avoiding both haste and delay, turned the lescope to rod No. 2, and set the target as a foresight. The bubble-tender pt the bubble constantly in the middle of the tube by slight pressure of e fingers on the leveling-plate of the instrument. To balance errors due defective vision of the bubble-tender, or differences in the light on the ubble, the bubble-tender moved around the tripod when the telescope as turned.

The recorder remained with rodman No. 1 until both he and the rod-an had read, recorded, and checked the rod-reading, when he walked pidly to rod No. 2, checking the paced distances on the way. The re-rder then read, recorded, and checked the reading of target No. 2, and gnaled "All right" to the instrument man, who repeated the signal to dman No. 1, when they both moved forward. Rodman No. 1, going rod No. 2, read, recorded, computed, and compared results with rod-an No. 2 and the recorder, the leveler having at the same time paced up point No. 2 to check the pacing, and then paced past point No. 2 the roper distance and set up the instrument. Rodman No. 1 paced up to e instrument from point No. 2, and then an equal distance beyond it, nd drove steel pin and set target. Thus this alternation occurred· On rst set-up rod No 1 on backsight is set first, and rod No. 2 on foresight is t last; on second set-up rod No. 1 on foresight is set first, and rod No. 2 n backsight is set last.

CHAPTER XXIII

LEVELING—SPECIAL WORK

This chapter deals with methods of giving grade-points for curbs, pavements, sewers, and roads; of setting stakes for grading land areas; of field work for estimating cut and fill in ordinary grading; and of giving grade-points for vertical curves. The typical cases of special work selected for this chapter will suggest methods to be followed in any work of a similar nature that is likely to arise in the experience of the young engineer. The article on *Setting Grade-stakes*, p. 258, should be studied in connection with this chapter.

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356. To Determine the Profile of a Street. Mark points on the curbs, or drive stakes, at regular intervals, close together where the grade is changing rapidly, farther apart where the grade is uniform, and treat these points thus marked as intermediate stations. Sometimes a profile of the center-line of the street is all that is wanted, but often in addition the profiles of curb-lines and street-lines are also required. Elevations should be taken at all street-corners, catch-basin covers, bridges, and other points which should appear upon the profile; also at any abrupt change in the surface of the ground and at the top and bottom of all slopes.

Practical suggestions. (1) Measurements between points may be taken with a tape or with the stadia; sometimes in rough work they may be paced. (2) Bench-marks should be established at intervals of several hundred feet, and at other points where they might prove useful (see p. 253). (3) Usually the best method is to number points as described on p. 254. Enough stakes or points on the curb should have numbers actually marked on them to render unlikely any confusion or omission of points. (4) Don't split hairs,—read the rod on intermediate points without using the target; often the nearest tenth will do. Why read to hundredths when the rod is resting on uneven or loose soil?

357. To Set Stakes on a Grade between Two Fixed Points. (*a*) The most general case is when the stakes are at unequal intervals, and when the ground is too uneven to permit the use of the "shooting-in" method. The grade will be the hypothenuse of a right-angled triangle, the base of which is the horizontal distance between the two fixed points; the difference in their elevations will be the altitude. By similar triangles the elevation of any point on the grade will then be proportional to the distance of that point from one of the fixed points. The elevations of the points having been calculated, the stakes may be set as explained in Art. 334, p. 258.

(*b*) *Illustration.* The elevations of two fixed points A and B, 360 ft. apart, are respectively 226.42 ft. and 233.12 ft. The finished grade is a uniform slope between the two points. It is required to set stakes 40 ft., 120 ft., and 300 ft. from A. The difference in elevation is 6.7 ft. Hence $\frac{40}{360}\times 6.7$ ft. $=0.74$, and $0.74+226.42=227.16$ ft. = elevation at 40 ft. from A. In the same way $2.23+226.42=228.65$ = elevation at $A+120$, and $5.58+226.42=232$ = elevation at $A+300$. As a check the difference in elevation for the remaining 60 ft. is $\frac{1}{6}\times 6.7=1.12$, and $232.0+1.12=233.12$, which agrees with the elevation of B.

(*c*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) See p. 259 for suggestions for setting stakes. (2) When practicable, set stakes at equal intervals so that the difference between successive grade-rods will be a constant. [See Art. 358 (*a*).]

(*d*) *To shoot in a grade between two fixed points.* If the two points are not already established, drive a stake to grade at each point by the grade-rod method. The next step is to establish a line of sight at a known distance above grade and *parallel to grade.* Either the transit or the level may be used. If the level is used it is best to set it up with one pair of leveling-screws in line with the two given points, so that these screws can be used for inclining the telescope. Method of procedure: (1) Set up near one stake, a foot or so behind it. (2) Hold the rod on the stake and set the target at the height of the center of the object-glass. (3) Hold the rod on the second stake; incline the telescope until the horizontal hair covers the center of the target. This brings the line of sight parallel to grade, provided the height of the object-glass has not been changed appreciably by inclining the telescope. (4) Hold the rod on the first stake, and set the target over again if the object-glass has been changed. (5) Hold the rod at the second stake, change the line of sight slightly if necessary, and *establish a permanent foresight* at the given distance above the stake. (6) Set the intermediate stakes without changing the target. This cannot be done if the surface of the ground is very irregular, hence this method is suitable only for comparatively uniform slopes.

(*e*) *Note.* When the transit is used it is often better to set up directly over one of the stakes, and fix the target at the height of the supporting axis, thus avoiding the readjustment in inclining the telescope. For the same reason some surveyors prefer to set the level directly over a stake instead of a foot or so behind it

(*f*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) Make sure that the line of sight is parallel to grade before setting intermediate stakes, no matter how many times the target must be reset,—two trials are usually sufficient. (2) For a permanent foresight, wrap a strip of paper about a pole, slip a rubber band over it, stick the pole behind the stake, move the rubber band until it coincides with the line of sight. Then any change in the line of sight which may occur during the setting of intermediate stakes may be readily detected and corrected by the levelman. (3) The error involved in setting the target opposite to the center of the object-glass, without looking through the telescope, is very small, often less than that which ordinarily occurs in setting the target at a distance of 300 ft. or 400 ft. (4) If the surface of the ground is too far above or below the required grade to drive the stakes to grade, the method can still be used, provided all the stakes can be driven some constant distance above or below grade. (5) See p. 259 for other practical suggestions for driving stakes.

358. To Set Grade-stakes for a Curb. A transit adjusted for leveling is the best instrument for this work. (1) Find two points known to be on the curb-line, and if the curb is straight, line in stakes at intervals of, say, 25 ft. to 50 ft., driving each stake a few inches into the ground. (2) Shoot in these intermediate stakes to grade if practicable; if not, figure the grade-rod for each stake (see p. 243). If the grade is on a vertical curve there is no difference in the field work,—it is simply a matter of fixing upon elevations at stated intervals (see p. 289).

(*a*) *Grade-rod method, illustration.* A curb 376.1 ft. long is to be set to a 2% grade. The lower end begins at a point of 129.64 ft. elevation. Stakes are set on line every 50 ft. The grade-rod will therefore be 1.0 ft. *less* for each succeeding stake as the grade ascends. The 3+50 stake is 26.1 ft. from the end, so that .02 × 26.1 = 0.522 must be subtracted from the grade-rod used for that stake to get the grade-rod for the end-stake; i.e., if the grade-rod for the first stake is, say, 8.94, for the 3+50 stake it is 1.94, and for the last stake it is 1.42.

(*b*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) When practicable set the instrument midway between the ends, and high enough to control the last or highest stake. (2) The curb-line may be marked by tacks in the top of the stakes *after* the latter have been set to grade, or the stakes may be driven with their edges on line. See suggestions, p. 259, for setting stakes. (3) In resetting old curbs a stone may be removed wherever it is desired to drive a stake, or an offset-line may be run on the sidewalk, two or three feet from the curb-line. Points on this line at intervals of about 25 ft. may be marked by spikes driven flush in the sidewalk, or if this be impracticable, by scratches on the surface. The curb-setter should be furnished with a memorandum giving the distance that each point is above or below the grade of the curb opposite to it.

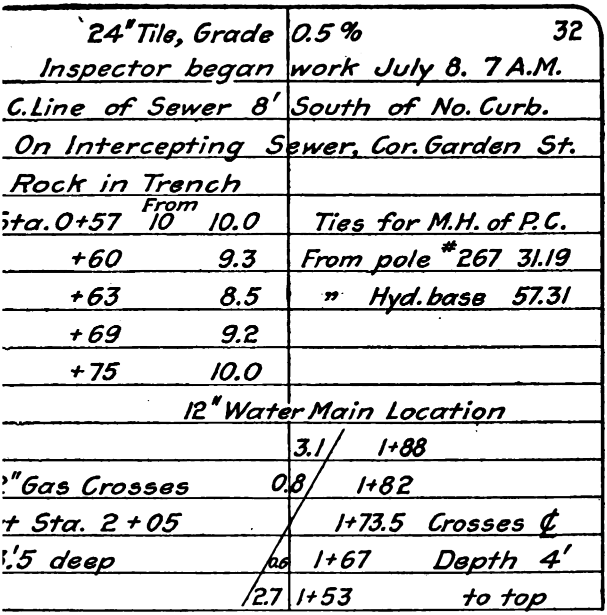
359. To Lay Out Grades for Pavements. (1) Set stakes for curbs as in the preceding article. After the curb has been set, mark points on the face of the curb where the surface of the pavement will strike the curb. These marks may be made with a chisel at intervals of from 25 to 50 ft. A row of stakes may also be set on the center-line of the street, especially if it is a wide street, to indicate the top of the crown of the roadway. These stakes and the marks on the curb are established with level and leveling-rod by the grade-rod method or by "shooting in." If it is necessary to estimate quantities before the pavement is laid, profiles should be made of the center-line and of the gutter-lines, and also in many cases of the sidewalk lines and property lines. The engineer often marks out the templet used in laying a pavement. Unless the street is very wide this templet corresponds to one half of the cross-section; its lower edge is an arc of a vertical circle or parabola starting from the gutter-line and rising to the center of the street to give a proper crown to the pavement.

360. To Give Grades for a Sewer. The center-line of the trench is first staked out on the ground. As soon as a portion of the trench is well under way, have the contractor set planks about two inches thick on edge across the trench at intervals of about 25 or 30 ft., the ends sunken into the banks flush with the ground surface. Nail upright strips (grade-slats) about two inches wide to the plank so that a line along the edges of the strips will be directly over the center of the sewer. The transit used for lining in the strips may now be used for "shooting in" the grade, or the grade-rod method may be applied. The grade is marked on the uprights, either by driving a nail horizontally into the edge of each "slat," or by cutting a notch. The nails should be driven only part way in, so that by sighting along the nails any error may be detected by the eye. The nails or notches on the uprights are usually placed a whole number of feet above the flow-line of the sewer (the lowest line along the *inside* surface of the sewer). This holds good for pipes as well as for built sewers.

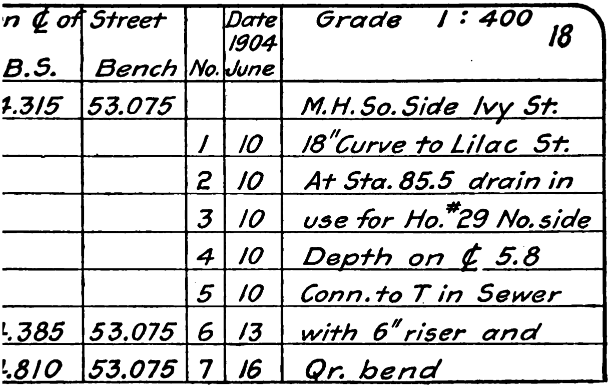
(*a*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) Grades should be given to the nearest hundredth of a foot, and the flatter the grade the more accurately the sewer should be laid. (2) When the ground is very uneven it may be necessary to set the nails or notches at *unequal* distances above the flow-line, but the distance for each notch should be some *whole* number of feet. It is well to mark a "crow-foot" on each grade-slat, with the apex at the nail or notch, and the amount of cut marked between the lines. (3) When nails or notches are a constant distance above grade and one is set by mistake far enough above or below the others to affect construction, the error will be apparent to the eye—hence form the habit of sighting frequently along the nails or notches. (4) The planks may be disturbed by blasting, or the uprights themselves be knocked out, especially if a cable trenching-machine is used. For this reason, if for no other, bench-marks should be established near the end of each stretch, or at distances not exceeding, say, 400 ft. (5) A straight, stiff grade-pole should be made for the use of the contractor and inspector, say of 2″×2″ pine, with a bracket at the bottom extending at right angles to the pole. Measuring from the bottom of the bracket, cut grooves to mark each foot. These grooves should be accurately cut across the face of the pole so that when the cord is stretched between the nails or notches on the uprights any groove may be fitted to the cord at any point, thus making the bottom of the bracket the corresponding number of even feet below the cord. (6) To avoid mistakes, work in one direction, say from down hill up hill, so that the target will always be moved downward at each new setting. (7) As sewers are usually laid in streets, it is easier to measure the distances between grade-slats along the surface of the ground, and find the proportion of the total rise or fall for each of these distances. (See (2), p. 286.) The *per cent.* for grade thus found does not accord with the definition in Art. 310 (*a*), p. 243, but the difference, numerically, is small. On rough uneven ground or very steep slopes it may be more convenient to measure between grade-slats by horizontal stretches, as in ordinary chaining, although a final "O. K." measurement should be made parallel to the sewer, since the contractor will be paid for the length of sewer as thus measured, and not for its horizontal projection.

31 Albany Ave. Sewer.				July 10	1905
Sta.	B. S.	H. I.	Rod	El.	Cut
B.M. = 0-01.30	55.610 3.207	58.817	13 3.203	.614	10 .7 9.3
-1.30 0	C.M.H			.006 45.62	
25.16 0+25.16			13 3.071	.126 .746	10 .5 9.5
30.01 +55.17			12 2.921	.150 .896	10 .6 9.4
29.99 +85.16			2.771	.150 46.046	10 .5 9.5
30.02 1+15.18	55.15 60.03		2.621	.150 .196	10 .4 9.6
29.78 +44.96	58.61 59.32		2.472	.149 .345	10 .1 9.9
28.86 +73.82	42.36		2.328	.144 .489	10 .2 9.8
29.63 2+03.45	275.47		2.180	.148 .637	10 .3 9.7
29.73 +33.18			2.032	.148 .785	10 .5 9.5
30.03 +63.21			11 1.882	.150 .935	10 .6 9.4
5.13 +68.34	C.M.H @ P.C.			.025 .960	
7.22 +75.56			1.821	.036 .996	10 .8 9.2
2+75.47	O.K. July 10 1905		11.15 A.M.	R.N.C.	W.T.T.

17	Newhall St.		18" Tile	Sewer	
Sta.	Grade	H. a. G.	E.G.P.	Rod	H. I.
0	40.125				57.390
47.15	.118 40.243	12	52.243	5.147	
40.34 87.49	.101 40.344	12	52.344	5.046	
39.67 127.16	.099 40.443	12	52.443	4.947	
40.05 167.21	.100 40.543	12	52.543	4.847	
39.58 206.79	.099 40.642	12	52.642	4.748	
39.74 246.53	.099 40.741	12	52.741	4.719	57.460
39.90 286.43	.100 40.841	12	52.841	5.044	57.885



24"Tile, Grade Inspector began	0.5 % 32 work July 8. 7 A.M.
C.Line of Sewer 8'	South of No. Curb.
On Intercepting S	ewer, Cor. Garden St.
Rock in Trench	
Sta.0+57 From 10 10.0	Ties for M.H. of P.C.
+60 9.3	From pole #267 31.19
+63 8.5	" Hyd. base 57.31
+69 9.2	
+75 10.0	
12" Water Main Location	
	3.1 1+88
"Gas Crosses 0.8	1+82
t Sta. 2+05	1+73.5 Crosses ₵
'5 deep 0.6	1+67 Depth 4'
2.7	1+53 to top



n ₵ of B.S.	Street Bench	No.	Date 1904 June	Grade 1 : 400 18
.315	53.075			M.H. So. Side Ivy St.
		1	10	18"Curve to Lilac St.
		2	10	At Sta. 85.5 drain in
		3	10	use for Ho.#29 No. side
		4	10	Depth on ₵ 5.8
		5	10	Conn. to T in Sewer
.385	53.075	6	13	with 6" riser and
.810	53.075	7	16	Qr. bend

(*b*) *Illustration.* (See field notes for Albany Ave. sewer, pp. 284, 285.) *Data.* The blue-print called for the following flow-line elevations: At the center of the manhole (or Sta. 0), El. = 45.62 ft.; at 268 ft. upstream (or Sta. 2+68), El. = 46.96 ft.; a straight grade between these two points or a rise of 46.96 − 45.62 = 1.34 ft. in 268 ft., or, approximately, a 0.5% grade (for 1.34+2.68 = 0.5). An outline of the different steps that were taken in giving the grade is as follows:

(1) The contractor set planks on edge across the trench, at intervals of about 30 ft. The engineer lined in the uprights or grade-slats. As a slat could not be set over the manhole at Sta. 0, one was set directly back of it (−1.3 ft.).

(2) Measured the partial distances between slats, 25.16, 30.01, 29.99, etc., and entered these distances in column 1, written in small figures just below the ruled lines. As the grade of the street was slight, these distances were measured along the surface.

(3) Added each partial distance to the number of the preceding station to get the number of the station at the succeeding grade-slat, thus: (0)+25.16 = Sta. 0+25.16; (0+25.16)+30.01 = Sta. 0+55.17; (0+55.17)+29.99 = Sta. 0+85.16, and so on, thus completing column 1. Observed that the last station checked, very closely, with the total distance.

(4) Multiplied each partial distance by 0.5 (per cent.) and put the results in column 5, written in small figures just below the ruled lines, thus: 25.16×0.5 = 0.126; 30.01×0.5 = 0.150, and so on.

(5) Starting with the known elevation of 45.62 for Sta. 0, found the elevation of the flow-line at each station by adding to the elevation of the preceding station the quantity in small figures just below, thus: 45.62+0.126 = 45.746; 45.746+0.150 = 45.896, and so on. Noticed that 46.96, the elevation thus obtained for Sta. 2+68.34, checked with the elevation called for on the blue-print for that station. This completes column 5.

(6) Backsighted on a bench-mark to get H.I. For convenience, 55.610, the elevation of the B.M., and 3.207, the B.S., were both recorded in the second column. Recorded 58.817 (their sum) in the third column.

(7) Subtracted each of the calculated elevations in column 5 from H.I. to get the grade-rod and entered the results in the fourth column, the whole number of feet at the top of the space, the decimal part on the ruled line, thus: 58.817 − 45.746 = 13.071; 58.817 − 45.896 = 12.921, and so on.

(8) Found, by trial, that it would be most convenient to cut the notches on the grade-slats 10 ft. above the flow-line, hence each grade-rod was reduced by 10 ft., giving "field-rods" of 3.071, 2.921, etc., thus completing column 4.

(9) The notch on each grade-slat was then cut, a "crow-foot" marked on the slat with its point at the notch, and "10" marked between the lines of the crow-foot. As the work progressed, the last column was filled out. Opposite Sta. 0+25.16, for example, there are three quantities recorded, i.e., 10 ft., the difference between the grade-rod and field-rod, or the distance of the notch on the slat above flow-line; 0.7 ft., the distance of the notch above the ground, and 9.3 ft. (or 10−0.7), the actual cut at that station. This column shows the actual depth of earth which the contractor has to remove; it is also useful in plotting the profile of the finished sewer.

(10) Finally, measurements were taken between notches, skipping every other slat so as to make each measurement cover two intervals. These measurements of 55.15, 60.03, etc., in column 2, were added up, and their sum or the "O. K." measurement was compared with the length obtained in the first column from the partial measurements. As might be expected, it was slightly shorter. The contractor is paid for the length of sewer as thus measured, i.e., as measured parallel to grade.

(11) Explanatory notes and records of various underground structures and rock measurements were put on the right-hand page. Thus, for example, rock in the trench began at Sta. 0+57, 10 ft. down, measured from the cord stretched between notches on the grade-slats; at Sta. 0+60 the top of the rock was 9.3 ft. below the cord; at Sta. 0+63, 8.5 ft. below, and so on. The direction of the 12″ water-main is given by offsets from the center-line of sewer; thus at Sta. 1+88 the offset is 3.1 ft., at 1+82 it is 0.8 ft., and at 1+73.5 it crosses the center-line, with its top 4 ft. below the cord stretched between notches on the grade-slats.

(*c*) *Illustration.* (See notes for Newhall St. tile sewer.) The first and second columns correspond to the first and fourth columns, respectively, of the preceding illustration. The third column is the "height above grade" of the notches or nails in the slats and corresponds to the first part of the last column in the preceding illustration. The fourth column contains the "elevation of grade points" or actual elevations of the notches or nails. The fifth column gives the field-rods. The third and fifth columns are combined in column 4 in the preceding illustration.

(*d*) *Suggestions.* (1) The heading of the notes for sewers should give: name of street; size of sewer and material; rate of grade and date. (2) Manholes and other important points should be referenced, and notes made of curves, house-connections, and bends, as illustrated on p. 285.

361. To Give Elevations for a Line of Shafting. The controlling points, say at each hanger, must be lined in first, hence the transit used for that purpose may also be used for leveling. The elevations of the controlling points may be established by the grade-rod method in the usual way. Since the points are usually above the instrument, *minus* grade-rods must be used, and hence it will be more convenient, although by no means necessary, to hold the rod upside down. A bench-mark should be established from which all elevations may be obtained.

Illustration. The elevation of the line of shafting at some hanger-point is to be, say, 12 ft. The height of instrument is, say, 5 ft. Then $5-12=-7$ ft. is the grade-rod, i.e., the required point is 7 ft. *above* instead of below the line of sight. Set the target at 7 ft., and hold the rod upside down. The base of the rod will then be 7 ft. above the line of sight and hence will give the required point.

362. To Estimate Cut and Fill for Grading Divide the area to be graded into squares, as in Fig. 468, p. 432. Find the elevation of the ground at the corner of each square, as in profile leveling, and calculate the cut or fill according to the method explained in Part II. *Borrow-pits* may be staked out and the contents estimated by this method.

Practical suggestions. (1) Establish one or more permanent bench-marks, according to the size of the plot. (2) Make the squares as large as possible, and yet have the surface of the ground in any one square approximately a plane. The more uniform the surface the larger the squares; very rough ground, small squares. (3) Take extra rod-readings to cover hollows and mounds within a square, which otherwise would cause appreciable errors in results. (4) Chain-pins can be used to mark corners, but stakes are better, for the number or letter corresponding to the corner may then be marked on the stake. (5) Use some system of marking corners like that shown in Fig. 402 (*c*), p. 341. (6) It is often accurate enough to line in stakes by eye, measuring the distances between with a tape, or sometimes by pacing. Another method is to lay a tape on the ground first along one line of corners and then along another line; the rod is held at every 10-ft. point or 20-ft. point, or whatever the proper interval may be and thus the use of stakes or chain-pins is avoided.

363. To Set Stakes for Grading Land. Divide the plot into squares, drive a stake a few inches into the ground at the corner of each square, and mark each stake according to some system like that shown in Fig. 402 (*c*), p. 341. If the cut and fill is to be estimated before the stakes are set to grade, the elevation of the ground at each stake is found in the usual manner, and the computations made as explained on pp. 429–434. When the finished grade has been decided upon, it remains to drive each stake either by using a grade-rod or by "shooting in" the grade. There are three general cases, according to whether the finished grade is (1) to be level, (2) to slope in one direction, or (3) to slope in two directions.

Remark. In each of the three cases it will be assumed for purposes of explanation that the surface of the ground is such that all stakes can be driven to grade. When, as is usually the case, this cannot be done, the customary method is to drive temporary stakes marked with the cut or fill *measured from the existing surface.* (See (5), p. 259.) When the rough grading is completed, the final set of stakes may be driven with tops to grade (see (1), p. 258), or with tops, say, one foot above grade (see (2), p. 258), or with lines marked on the stakes (see (3), p. 258). Occasionally it will be necessary to set stakes once for all before grading is begun, and to use different "field-rods" for different stakes. (See illustration (*b*), p. 259.)

(*a*) *Case I. To set stakes so that the finished grade will be level.* It is required to grade to an elevation of 100 ft. (actual or assumed). (1) Set up the level and find H.I. Say it is 106.45. (2) Set the target at the grade-rod, in this case 6.45. (3) If the ground is already nearly level it may be possible to drive all stakes to grade, using this grade-rod, or, if more than one set-up is required, by figuring a new grade-rod for each new set-up of the level.

(*b*) *Case II. To set stakes so that the finished grade will slope in one direction only.* In this case it is best to set the lines of stakes parallel to the direction of the slope. Then each line may be set in a manner similar to that explained for setting curb-stakes (p. 282). A quick method, when the surface of the ground is fairly even, is to "shoot in" one row of stakes in the direction of the slope, and then set the cross-rows at right angles, with all the stakes in any one row at the same elevation. In rough ground it is usually necessary to set stakes by the use of "field" grade-rods, as explained above.

(*c*) *Case III. To set stakes so that the finished grade will slope in two directions.* In this case, if the two directions of slopes are at right angles to each other, the work is similar to the preceding case, the stakes in one direction being set parallel to the slope in that direction; the cross-lines in the other direction will then be parallel to the other slope. When the ground is nearly at the required grade, a quick way is to calculate the elevations of the four corner-stakes, set these stakes, "shoot in" the outside rows, and then "shoot in" the intermediate stakes of each row from the two extreme stakes in that row. If, however, the ground is too uneven to set the stakes without using different grade-rods, it then becomes necessary to calculate the elevation of the finished grade at each stake, and from these elevations find the grade-rod to use for each stake, as in the preceding illustration.

When the two directions of slope are not at right angles to each other, the problem is somewhat more complicated. As a general rule, several points may be chosen to be used as controlling points. The elevations of these points having been determined, by calculation or by some other method, stakes may be set on a straight line between any two controlling points in the usual manner. Controlling points should be selected with a view of simplifying the work of calculation as well as the actual field work.

364. To Stake Out a Vertical Curve. Once the elevations of points on the curve are known, the work of setting stakes does not differ from any of the work already explained in which the grade-rod method is used. The elevations on the curve are usually taken at regular intervals, and may be determined in two ways: (1) by calculation, and (2) by plotting the curve and scaling the ordinates (elevations). If the latter method is used, the vertical scale is usually much greater than the horizontal scale,—large enough so that ordinates may be scaled to the limit of error fixed upon for setting stakes. In case this limit of error is very small, it is usually necessary to calculate elevations. The parabola is often used for vertical curves, because (1) it is well adapted for a gradual and easy change from an up grade to a down grade, or vice versa, and (2) the calculation of elevations is very simple.

(*a*) TO CALCULATE THE ELEVATIONS OF POINTS ON A VERTICAL PARABOLA

Let I be the point of intersection of an up grade AI with a down grade IB. Let $d=$ the distance between stations, and let A be n stations on one side of I, and B be n stations on the other side, i.e., $AE'=E'B'$, and hence $AE=EB$. Let g represent the rise of AI per d ft., and g' the fall of IB per d ft. These two grades may be unequal. Required: To find the elevation of points on a vertical parabola passing through A and B, tangent to AI and BI. There are two methods: (1) To calculate tangent corrections y_1, y_2, y_3, etc., at regular intervals; this corresponds to tangent offsets for circular curves (p. 207). (2) To find the chord gradients for successive chords. Since $AE=EB$, IE is a diameter of the parabola, and the distances of the curve in a vertical direction from stations on the tangent AI are as the squares of the number of stations, or if x = the number of stations and c = a constant, $y=x^2c$. (From analytic geometry.) It can be shown that

$$c=\frac{g-g'}{4n}. \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (1)$$

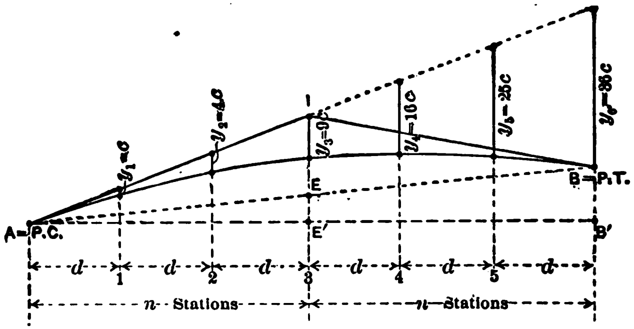


FIG. 364 (a).

I. First method, *tangent deflections*	II. Second method, *successive chord gradients*
d ft. from A or $P.C.$ $y_1=c$	First chord gradient $=g-c$
$2d$ " " " " " $y_2=4c$	Second " " $=g-3c$
$3d$ " " " " " $y_3=9c$	Third " " $=g-5c$
$4d$ " " " " " $y_4=16c$	Fourth " " $=g-7c$
Nd " " " " " $y_N=N^2c$	Nth " " $=g-(2N-1)c$

Remark. The plus sign may be given to an ascending grade and a minus sign to a descending grade. If strict attention is paid to algebraic signs in determining the value of c, the above formulas hold good for all six possible combinations of grades, including the cases when both grades are rising or both falling.

(b) *Elevations of special points.* The elevation of a point between stations may be found by treating the distance of the point from the preceding station as a decimal part of d. (See remark, p. 292.)

The elevation of I is the elevation of $P.C.$ plus ng. The elevation of $P.T.$ is the elevation of I plus ng'.

The elevation of the point on the curve directly above or below I may be found by adding algebraically n^2c to the mean of the elevations of $P.C.$ and $P.T.$

FIELD WORK OF STAKING OUT A VERTICAL PARABOLA

(c) *Method of procedure for tangent corrections.*

(1) Calculate c from formula (1), p. 290, being careful to give to g and g' their correct algebraic signs. (See remark, p. 290.)

(2) Calculate the uncorrected elevation of each station as if it were on the given grade through $P.C.$ by adding g *algebraically* to the elevation of the preceding station.

(3) Calculate the tangent corrections y_1, y_2, y_3, etc.

(4) Subtract *algebraically* the values of y_1, y_2, y_3, etc., found in (3) from the corresponding uncorrected elevations found in (2). This gives the actual elevations of points on the curve.

(5) Set stakes for the various points by the grade-rod method (pp. 243, 258–259).

(d) *Method of procedure for chord gradients.*

(1) Calculate c as in the preceding method.

(2) Calculate the gradient for each chord by subtracting $2c$ *algebraically* from the gradient of the preceding chord. (The gradient of the first chord is $(g-c)$. See p. 290.)

(3) Beginning with the elevation of $P.C.$, add *algebraically* the gradient of each chord to the elevation of the station at the beginning of the chord to find the elevation of the station at the end of the chord.

(4) Set stakes for the various points by the grade-rod method.

(e) *Methods compared.* The method of chord gradients is preferable to the other, since it involves not only less arithmetical work, but if the elevation of $P.T.$ comes out correct, it is a check on all of the calculations.

(f) *Illustration.* A grade ascending at the rate of 1 ft. per 100 ft. is to be connected by a parabola with a grade descending at the rate of 3 ft. per 100. Stakes are to be set 100 ft. apart. $P.C.$ and $P.T$ are each to be 200 ft. from I. Then $d=100$, $g=1$, $g'=(-3)$, $n=2$, and $c=\frac{1-(-3)}{4\times 2}=+0.5$. Suppose the elevation of $P.C.$ is 128.16, then the following table will illustrate the two methods.

BY TANGENT CORRECTIONS

Stake	Uncorrected elevation		$y=x^2c$		Corrected elevation
$P.C.$	128.16	−	0.0	=	128.16
	+1.0				
1	129.16	−	0.5	=	128.66
	+1.0				
2	130.16	−	2.0	=	128.16
	+1.0				
3	131.16	−	4.5	=	126.66
	+1.0				
$P.T.$	132.16	−	8.0	=	124.16

BY GRADIENTS

Line	Gradient		Corrected elevation
— to $P.C.$	1.0		128.16
	+0.5		+0.5
$P.C.$ to 1	$g-c=+0.5$	1	= 128.66
	+1.0		−0.50
1 to 2	$g-3c=-0.5$	2	= 128.16
	+1.0		−1.5
2 to 3	$g-5c=-1.5$	3	= 126.66
	+1.0		−2.5
3 to $P.T.$	$g-7c=-2.5$	$P.T.$	= 124.16

Check. From (*b*) the El. of $I = 128.16 + 2 \times 1 = 130.16$. El. of *P.T.* $= 130.16 + 2 \times (-3) = 124.16$ (check). El. of curve at a point below I is $(128.16 + 124.16) \div 2 + 2^2 \times 0.5 = 126.16 + 2.0 = 128.16$ (check).

Remark. The elevation of any substation say 140 ft. from *P.C.* (1.4 stations) $= 128.16 + 1.4g - (1.4)^2c = 129.56 - 0.98 = 128.58$.

Both grades ascending or both descending. Method still holds good.

Exercise. Find the corrected elevations in the above illustration when g' is $+3$. (The elevation of *P.T.* should come out 136.16.)

(*g*) *To make the vertical parabola connecting two grades pass through a point at a given distance above or below I.* From p. 290 $c = \frac{y}{n^2} = \frac{g-g'}{4n}$. Hence y for a point above or below I (i.e., n stakes from *P.C.*) is given by $y = \frac{n(g-g')}{4}$.

(1) Substitute for y the amount the curve must pass above or below I, insert values for g and g', and solve for n. (2) Find c and proceed as usual.

Illustration. A grade descending at the rate of 2.0 ft. per 100 ft. is to be connected with a grade ascending at the rate of 3.6 ft. per 100 ft. by a vertical parabola. The curve must pass through a point 1.4 above I. Stakes must be set at 25 ft. intervals. $g = -2$ ft. per 100 ft. $= -0.5$ ft. per 25 ft. $g' = +3.6$ ft. per 100 ft. $= +0.9$ ft. per 25 ft.

By the conditions $y = 1.4$, hence $1.4 = \frac{n(-0.5-0.9)}{4}$, and $n = 4$. Hence $c = \frac{-0.5-0.9}{4 \times 4} = -0.0875$. Suppose that the elevation of *P.C.* $= 98.6$.

BY TANGENT CORRECTIONS

Stake	Uncorrected elevation		$y = x^2c$		Corrected elevation
P.C.	98.6		0.0		98.6
	−0.5				
1	98.1	−	−0.0875	=	98.1875
	−0.5				
2	97.6	−	−0.35	=	97.95
	−0.5				
3	97.1	−	−0.7875	=	97.8875
	−0.5				
4	96.6	−	−1.4	=	98.0
	−0.5				
5	96.1	−	−2.1875	=	98.2875
	−0.5				
6	95.6	−	−3.15	=	98.75
	−0.5				
7	95.1	−	−4.2875	=	99.3875
	−0.5				
P.T	94.6	−	−5.6	=	100.2

BY GRADIENTS

Line	Gradient	Corrected elevation
— to *P.C.*	−0.5 −0.0875	98.6 −0.4125
P.C. to 1	−0.4125 −0.1750	98.1875 −0.2375
1 to 2	−0.2375 −0.1750	97.9500 −0.0625
2 to 3	−0.0625 −0.1750	97.8875 +0.1125
3 to 4	+0.1125 −0.1750	98.0000 +0.2875
4 to 5	+0.2875 −0.1750	98.2875 +0.4625
5 to 6	+0.4625 −0.1750	98.7500 +0.6375
6 to 7	+0.6375 −0.1750	99.3875 +0.8125
7 to 8	+0.8125	100.2000

Check. El. of $I = 98.6 + \times 4(-0.5) = 96.6$. El. of *P.T.* $= 96.6 + 4 \times 0.9 = 100.2$ (check). The elevation of a point on the curve above I is $(98.6 + 100.2) \div 2 + 4^2 \times -0.0875 = 99.4 + (-1.4) = 98.0$ (check). (See also p. 368.)

(*h*) *When the rate of change c and the two grades g and g′ are given.* The first step is to find n from $n = \frac{g-g'}{4c}$. Then proceed as in the other cases already illustrated. (See books on Railway Curves for other special cases.)

CHAPTER XXIV

COMPASS SURVEYING

SINCE the theory of transit surveying already explained includes practically all of the theory of compass surveying, it is necessary in this chapter to give only a few additional directions and suggestions for the use of the compass. The first part of Chapter XI, which deals with the subject of bearings, should be studied in connection with this chapter.

365. Compass Surveying. The transit has taken the place of the surveyor's compass to such an extent that now the latter is used for rough work only, where speed and not accuracy is the first requirement. For such work the compass is a very useful instrument, and surprisingly good results may often be obtained with it. The positions of any two points with respect to each other are determined by the *bearing and the length* of the line between them, and this is the basis of compass surveying. The angle between two lines may be calculated easily if the bearing of each line is known. (See chapter on *Calculation of Bearings.*) The clumsy and inaccurate chain formerly used in compass surveying is being gradually replaced by the steel chain-tape. (See remark, p. 33.)

The objections to the use of the compass are: (1) Under the most favorable conditions bearings cannot be read with any degree of certainty closer than five or ten minutes. (2) The needle is unreliable, and under certain conditions, as for example in city surveying, local attraction may render it practically useless.

The advantages are: (1) The compass is light and portable; and while it is less accurate than the transit, it requires much less time for setting up, sighting, and reading. (2) An error in the direction of one line does not, necessarily, affect other lines of the survey. (3) The compass is especially adapted to running straight lines through woods and other places where obstacles are likely to interfere with the line of sight. Thus, for example, when a foresight strikes a tree the instrument may be set up beyond it at a point, found by trial, such that the backsight on the tree will have the same bearing as the foresight. (4) Since the compass was the instrument in general use before the introduction of the theodolite and the transit, it is especially adapted to retracing old surveys.

366. Use of the Compass. *Practical suggestions.* (1) Set up over the station and level up. If the instrument is fitted with a ball-spindle only, it is made level by grasping the main plate *near the compass-box*—not near the sight-vanes—and moving it until both bubbles come to position, where it is held by friction on the ball. If there are leveling-screws, the instrument is made approximately level on the ball and the leveling perfected by the leveling-screws.

(2) The upright sights or sight-vanes are usually unlike. For example, the one nearer the north point of the compass-box may have graduations marked on it for vertical angles, while that at the south end is not graduated but has attached to it two little revolving disks or peep-holes. If there is a counter for keeping tally in chaining, it is usually placed on the plate near the south sight. Fix in mind once for all which of the two uprights is the *south* sight, so as to tell it at a glance, always keep this next to the eye in sighting, and always read the *north* end of the needle, as explained on p. 102. Use a magnifying-glass in reading, and look along the axis of the needle to avoid parallax. Read to the nearest half-degree and estimate to the nearest five minutes. It is good practice to glance at the *south* end of the needle as a check, especially if one moves around the instrument to take the reading, for in changing positions any source of local attraction about the person is likely to be detected by the corresponding change in the needle reading.

(3) Protect the pivot in every way possible, for unless the pivot is sharp and perfect the needle may be sluggish and unreliable. Hence lift the needle off the pivot before starting to carry the compass to another point, and keep it off when not in use. Avoid excessive vibrations, after setting up, by turning the main plate before releasing the needle until the latter is nearly in the magnetic meridian; the same result will be obtained if the vibrations are checked by slightly raising the needle, but the longer the needle is in coming to rest the more accurate will be its final position.

(4) Keep sources of attraction such as axes and chain-pins away from the compass; bits of steel about the person, such as *pocket*-knives, wire in a hat brim, a steel suspender buckle.

spectacle-cases, sometimes affect the needle. The glass of the compass-box may become electrified from rubbing it—wet it with the finger or breathe upon it.

(5) If the needle is sluggish it may need to be remagnetized by bringing it into the magnetic field of an electric light or a dynamo. In doing this the poles may be reversed; test by putting the needle back on its pivot, and if reversal is found put the needle back into the field the other end about. A more tedious method is to lay the needle down and rub each end from the center out with that end of a bar-magnet which attracts the end of the needle that is being rubbed. In passing the magnet back from end to center, lift it some distance above the needle to avoid counteracting the rubbing.

(6) For important lines take duplicate readings. After the first reading, disturb the needle by lifting it or by tapping the box gently, and see if it comes to rest at the same reading as before. Another way is to turn the sights off the point sighted at and to bring them back again to check the original reading; this takes more time, but it is the surest check.

(7) To guard against local attraction read the bearing of important lines at two different points—usually at the two ends.

(8) When, because of obstructions, it is inconvenient to take the bearing of a line, take the bearing of a parallel line, established by offsets as near as practicable to the required line.

(9) In ordinary work make sure that the declination arc is set at zero. When, however, it is desired to run lines by true bearings instead of by magnetic bearings, set off the declination arc (Art. 185, p. 124). In retracing old surveys the change in the declination of the needle may be ascertained and the declination arc adjusted so that the lines may be run from the bearings given by the original surveyor. (See p. 298.)

(10) When the compass is put away, allow the needle to swing to the magnetic meridian and then lift it—it retains its magnetic strength longer in this position.

367. Compass Surveying,—General Method. (*a*) *Reference lines* corresponding to transit lines, Chapter XII, are established and the length and bearing of each ascertained. (See also Art. 188, p. 125.)

(*b*) *Where to run lines.* The suggestions in Art. 216, p. 149, hold good. It is often possible, however, to make compass lines coincide with boundary-lines, where in transit surveying it would be impossible. When this can be done it saves much unnecessary work (Art. 216 (*a*), p. 150). Avoid choosing stations near sources of local attraction.

(*c*) *Methods of locating details.* The methods of Chapter XIII hold good, except that bearings of lines are read in place of angles in those methods which involve angular measurements. Because of the inaccuracy of the compass, methods involving linear measurements only (p. 138) are used even more than in transit surveying. The old rule that "when distances and direction to the same point disagree distances govern" is more true in compass surveying than in transit work.

(*d*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) *Equipment* nearly the same as given in Art. 204, p. 145, with the compass in place of the transit. (2) *Referencing stations* by marks on trees, etc. See Art. 211, p. 148. (3) *Relation between office and field work.* See Art. 215, p. 149.

368. Detection and Elimination of Local Attraction. In this article the term *local attraction* is used in its strict sense, and does not include the deviation of the needle due to things about the person or to other avoidable sources.

(*a*) *Detection.* When the bearings read at the two ends of a line do not agree, *local attraction* probably exists at one or possibly both ends, provided the compass is in good condition and no mistakes are made in observations. To ascertain the correct bearing, set up at a third point on the line, and see with which of the first two readings the third agrees. If it agrees with neither, try a fourth point, and so on until two readings do agree.

(*b*) *Elimination.* The angle formed by two lines can be calculated from the bearings of the two lines regardless of local attraction, provided the bearings are both read at the same station—i.e., where the lines intersect. This fact suggests a method of eliminating local attraction from the bearings of a number of connected lines, as illustrated below.

Compass at	Line	Bearing	Correction	Corrected bearing
A	*AD*	N. 62° 40′ E.	+50′	N. 63° 30′ E.
	AB	S. 69° 0′ E.	+50′	S. 68° 10′ E.
B	*BA*	N. 67° 0′ W	−1° 10′	N. 68° 10′ W.
	BC	N. 41° 0′ E.	−1° 10′	N. 39° 50′ E.
C	*CB*	S. 39° 50′ W.	0	
	CD	N. 57° 0′ W.	0	
D	*DC*	S. 57° 0′ E.	0	
	DA	S. 63° 30′ W.	0	

Illustration. The bearing of each line in Fig. 368 (*b*) was read at both ends of the line. Glancing down the results in the third column above, it is seen that in only one case (the line *CD*) do the bearings agree. This indicates that there is no local attraction at either *C* or *D*. Hence the bearing of *DA* = S. 63° 30′ W. must be correct. But at *A* the reading is N. 62° 40′ E., indicating an error of +50′ due to local attraction at *A* (+ = clockwise, − = counterclockwise). Applying this correction to the erroneous reading S. 69° 0′ E. of *AB*, the correct bearing of *AB* is S. 68° 10′ E. But the reading at *B* is N 67° 10′ W., indicating an error of −1° 10′. Applying this correction to the other reading taken at *B*, i.e., *BC* = N. 41° 0′ E., the correct bearing of *BC* is N. 39° 50′ E. This checks with *CB* = S. 39° 50′ W., taken at *C*, where there is no local attraction. Thus local attraction may be eliminated from any number of connected lines provided the correct bearing of one line is known.

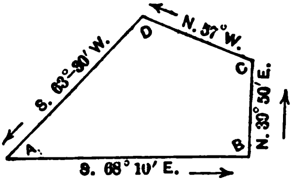


FIG. 368 (*b*).

Note. When the bearing of not even one line can be taken as correct, assume, for temporary purposes, that the correction at some one station, say the first station, is zero, and correct all the other bearings accordingly by the method just illustrated. It will usually be found that for a number of stations the correction is the same. It is therefore pretty safe to assume that at these stations no local attraction exists, and the bearings may again be corrected on this assumption.

369. Field Notes and Method of Procedure. The field notes are usually kept by the sketch method (p. 165). Thus, for example, if the compass had been used in the survey illustrated on p. 183, the bearing would be recorded along each line in place of the angle. When simply the bearings of a few lines are taken and no sketch is required, the notes may be tabulated in a form similar to Form 9—a modification of Form 7, p. 174. Be careful to record whether the bearings are true or magnetic.

FORM 9

Station	Line	Bearing	Length		
D	DE	S.1°20′E	229.7	All bearings are Magnetic.	Declination = 10°58′W July 23, 1906
	DC	S.72°55′W			
C	CD	N.72°55′E	155.0		
	CB	N.8°45′E			
B	BC	S.8°45′W	87.3		
	BA	N.22°10′W			
A	AB	S.22°10′E	107.8		

Method of procedure. Set up at A, took the bearing of AB. Set up at B, took the back bearing of AB, i.e., the bearing BA,—found that it checked with the forward bearing. Took the forward bearing of BC, and moved on to C. While this was being done the chainmen measured the lines between stations. Continued the work by taking the forward and back bearing at each station, as indicated in the notes.

Remark. The first column is unnecessary and may be omitted provided it is understood that the first letter of a line is the station at which the compass stands when the bearing is taken. In case there are side shots for locating details, these may be entered in the tabulated form as in transit surveying, and an explanatory sketch made on the right-hand page—a method resorted to sometimes when there is not room on the sketch. In compass surveying, however, details are usually located by linear measurements only, and these should be put directly on the sketch itself.

If the methods of keeping notes for transit surveys have been mastered, it is an easy matter to adapt them to compass surveys.

370. Sources of Error. (1) Local attraction. (2) Errors of observation. (3) Instrumental.

The first source of error is annoying, but it can be eliminated by the method of the preceding article. The second includes errors in sighting and in reading,—errors from this source can be avoided by following the suggestions in Art. 366, p. 294. The chief source of error is the compass itself. Not only is it difficult to read the needle closely, but different compasses will often give different bearings for the same line, even when the instruments seem to be in good adjustment.

Limits of precision. The maximum error of bearing should not exceed ten minutes if a good compass graduated to half-degrees is used. Since 1 in 57.3 corresponds to 1°, this is equivalent to 1 in 344. If the bearing is correct to five minutes, which is as close as the compass can be read with a reasonable degree of certainty, the error is 1 in 688. This is much less accurate than the results which may be reasonably expected in measuring distances with a chain. (See p. 49.) Of course better results are often obtained with the compass, but a higher limit of error should not be required.

Rerunning Old Surveys. The chief use of the compass, in many communities, is in rerunning former surveys, especially in finding boundaries which have become more or less uncertain. The original surveys were made, say, from 40 to 100 years ago, and the large tree or the pile of stones which once marked a corner have entirely disappeared. In such a case the surveyor can proceed only from such evidence as he can procure by examining town records, and by searching for existing bounds. If the owners who are interested will not accept his results, it is then a matter for the courts. The surveyor cannot, of course, settle a boundary dispute, though many persons seem to think so. He can, however, give expert testimony, and frequently he can persuade the disputants to accept a boundary-line which he has run out without resorting to the courts.*

Assuming that the lengths and bearings of the boundaries are known, it will be necessary to ascertain the change in the magnetic declination which has taken place since the original survey was made. If *two* points on any boundary-line are still preserved, the most direct method is to sight along this line and to change the declination arc until the bearing agrees with the original. When, however, only one point on a boundary-line remains, it will be necessary to find the change in magnetic declination in some other way. This change may often be calculated, provided the date of the original survey is known.† When tracing deeds in town records, however, it is not easy to know when one has gone far enough back, i.e., to be sure that one has reached the owner for whom the original survey was made. When the date has been ascertained and the change in the magnetic declination has been figured, the declination arc should be adjusted accordingly, or, if there is no provision for this adjustment, proper allowance should be made in the bearing of each line. The importance of dating a map and of giving the corresponding magnetic declination is obvious.

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* It is not within the province of this book to enter upon the difficulties encountered in rerunning old surveys, or to cite cases illustrating the existing laws. For this part of the subject the student is referred to standard works of reference, especially to a *Manual of Land Surveying* by F. R. Hodgman, Climax, Mich., published by the author.

† When there is no local record of the change in magnetic declination from year to year, it may often be obtained from the "U. S. Declination Tables and Isogonic Charts for 1902" by L. A. Bauer, published by the U. S. Government (Coast and Geodetic Survey). This volume embraces some 8000 observations on magnetic declinations in different states.

CHAPTER XXV

STADIA SURVEYING

In this chapter the principles of stadia surveying are explained, formulas for reducing inclined sights to horizontal and vertical distances are derived, methods of determining the stadia interval and of graduating rods are given, methods of procedure in field work are outlined, sources of error are pointed out, and limits of error are suggested.

372. Stadia, Stadia-wires, Stadia-rod. The stadia method of measuring distances * consists in observing how much of a rod held at one end of a line appears to be included between two parallel cross-hairs (or wires) as the observer looks through a telescope at the other end of the line. The farther the rod from the telescope, the more of the rod will be included between the two hairs. *Stadia-wires* in the telescope of the transit or the level are horizontal, one above and one below the regular horizontal cross-hair. In some telescopes they are a fixed distance apart; in others the distance can be changed, i.e., the stadia-wires are adjustable. *Stadia-rods* are usually from four to six inches wide and from one half to three quarters of an inch thick. There are many patterns in use, the main object being to secure graduations on the face of the rod which can be read easily at a distance and yet be fine enough to indicate definitely and accurately the distance of the rod from the stadia-wires. Leveling-rods are often used as stadia-rods. The term *stadia*, formerly used to denote the rod, is now used to include both the rod *and* the wires; it also stands for the method itself: thus, for example, measuring with the stadia, i.e., rod and wires, and measuring by the stadia, i.e., by the stadia method. *Telemeter* is a term often used in place of *stadia*. *Tachymeter* is sometimes used to denote a transit equipped with stadia-wires, vertical circle, and telescope-level.

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* Said to have been invented in 1770 by no less a man than James Watt.

373. The Principle of the Stadia is based on the geometric principle that in two similar triangles corresponding sides and altitudes are proportional. In practice the distance of a stadia-rod from a transit or a level is found by observing how much of the rod appears to be exactly included between the two stadia-wires as the observer looks through the telescope. For example, if at 100 feet away a *foot* of the rod is thus included, at 200 feet away *two* feet of the rod will be included, at 300 feet *three* feet, and so on. This is not, however, strictly true, for a *constant*, which differs slightly for different telescopes, must be added to each reading.

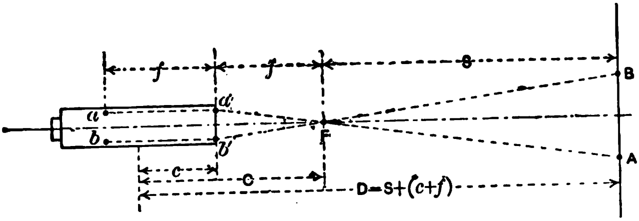

Fig. 373 (*a*).

(*a*) *Theory involved.* Let a and b in Fig. 373 (a) represent the position of the upper and lower stadia-wires. Let AB be the portion of a stadia-rod which appears to be exactly included between a and b. Any ray of light from A which passes through F will become parallel to the axis of the telescope after passing through the lens.* Since all rays from A converge at a, they may be treated as a single line $AFa'a$. Likewise the cone of rays from B gathered by the lens and brought to a focus at b may be considered as one line $BFb'b$.

Let a' and b' be the points where the oblique rays are changed to parallel rays. Let c be the distance from the center of the instrument to the center of the object-glass—a slightly variable quantity, dependent on the focusing. Then from the similar triangles $a'Fb'$ and AFB, $a'b':f::AB:S$, or $S=\frac{f}{a'b'}\times AB$. Since $a'b'(=ab)$ is the interval between the stadia-wires (denoted by i), and since $AB=R=$ the rod-reading, then $S=\frac{f}{i}R$. The ratio $\frac{f}{i}$ for any given telescope is constant, therefore the distance S is always equal to the rod-reading multiplied by this ratio, no matter where the rod may be held. But the distance usually required is the distance from the rod to the *center* of the instrument. This distance $D=S+(c+f)$. The quantity $(c+f)$ for all practical purposes is a constant C. The quantities c and f may be found with much greater accuracy than is necessary, as follows: (1) Focus on a point 100 ft. or more away. (2) Measure from the center of the object-glass to the center of the instrument to find c. (3) Measure from the center of the object-glass to the cross-hairs to find f. (Since the cross-hairs are approximately at one of the principal foci or as far behind the lens as the other principal focus, F is in front of the lens.)* (4) Add these two measurements to find the total correction C. Notice that the constant C, once determined, is the same for all readings; it is *not* twice as much for 200 ft., three times as much for 300 ft., and so on.

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* From the theory of lenses explained in Part III.

(*b*) *Remark.* It makes little difference whether the telescope is focused on a distant point or on a point a few feet away, since the extreme range of the object-glass slide is less than one inch for the average telescope. This extreme variation in the distance c may be ignored when it is considered that stadia readings are usually taken to the nearest foot. Moreover, in changing the focus from say 100 ft. to the longest distance ever read, the variation is only a very small *fraction* of an inch.

The total correction C varies from about 0.9 ft. for a short telescope to about 2.5 ft. for the telescope of an 18″ wye-level. For transit work it is usually close enough to add an even foot to each reading.

374. To Test the Stadia Interval. The stadia-wires in most instruments are so placed that $\frac{f}{i}=100$; hence when one foot of the stadia-rod is intercepted the rod is $(100+C)$ feet from the center of the instrument; when 2 feet of the rod are intercepted it is $(200+C)$ feet away, and so on. The stadia interval and the value of C (determined as explained in the preceding article by measuring the telescope) may both be tested as follows:

Test. Set up the instrument on level ground. Hold the rod at such a distance away that the stadia-wires intercept a foot of it. Suppose this distance, measured with the tape, is 101.2 feet. This would indicate that the constant C is 1.2 feet. To make sure, however, hold the rod so that two feet are intercepted. The distance as measured should be 201.2 (*not* 202.4). If three feet are intercepted, the distance as measured should equal 301.2. A series of such observations should be made before beginning any important work with the stadia. (See p. 304.)

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* From the theory of lenses explained in Part III.

375. To Adjust the Stadia-wires. When stadia-wires are movable they may be adjusted as follows: (1) Set two targets on a leveling-rod exactly one foot apart, and hold the rod at a distance of $(100+C)$ ft. from the center of the instrument. (2) Sight at the rod, moving the telescope up or down with the slow-motion screw until the middle horizontal hair is exactly half-way between the two targets. (3) Make one stadia-wire bisect one target and the other wire bisect the other target by turning the screws which control the stadia-wires. Watch the middle hair to see that it does not move off the middle point, and if it does bring it back again. (4) Hold the rod at $(200+C)$ ft. from the instrument, and test each stadia-wire separately to see if it bisects one target when the middle hair bisects the other. (5) Test both hairs at the same time by setting the targets two feet apart. (6) Repeat the test for the wires at $(400+C)$ ft.

Practical suggestions. (1) The method just described makes the stadia-wires equal distances from the middle cross-hair. This is not essential so long as the interval between the stadia-wires is correct, unless, as is sometimes the case, distances are measured by observing the space included between one stadia-wire and the middle cross-hair. (2) In place of the regulation targets it may be more convenient and more accurate to make targets of cardboard having well-defined ink-lines at half-foot intervals, or three separate targets to be fastened to the rod at required intervals. (3) Notice that rods may be constructed and stadia-wires spaced so that units other than feet may be used, as, for example, units in the metric system. (4) One advantage of the standard interval is that the ordinary leveling-rod may be used as a stadia-rod when desired. (5) The screws for adjusting the stadia-wires are usually two capstan-headed screws, close to the four screws for adjusting the cross-hair ring. (See Adjustment of Cross-hairs in the chapter on Adjustments.) (6) The middle hair should never be disturbed in adjusting stadia-wires,—it is supposed to be in adjustment.

376. Fixed Stadia-wires. For the most accurate work stadia-wires should be *non-adjustable*. Most instruments having fixed stadia-wires are intended to be used with standard rods graduated to feet. A series of tests will often show, however, that though the maker has fixed the interval $\frac{f}{i}=100$ with accuracy sufficient for ordinary work, yet in order to obtain results better than say $\frac{1}{500}$, either (1) a special rod must be graduated to suit the instrument, or (2) an *interval factor* must be used for correcting readings.

(*a*) *To graduate the rod.* (1) Establish a point F a distance C in front of the instrument. (2) Measure accurately 100 ft., 200 ft., 300 ft., and 400 ft. from this point F. (3) Hold a rod with cardboard targets at each of the above points in succession, and determine as accurately as possible what interval on the rod corresponds to 100 ft. (4) Lay off these intervals on the rod as if they were feet, and again test at 100 ft., 200 ft., 300 ft., and 400 ft. (5) When the intervals are correct, the subdivisions may be painted on, according to any desired pattern.

(*b*) *The interval factor.* When it is desired to use a rod with standard graduations, and the fixed stadia-wires are found to be slightly in error, it will be necessary to multiply each reading by a constant factor to reduce it to the true reading. This interval factor may be determined by a series of tests similar to that given for graduating the rod.

Illustration. Suppose that the average intercept on a rod, as determined from a number of observations at different distances, repeated several times is 1.0042 ft., then all distances read would be too long and should be reduced by dividing by 1.0042. If the distances are inclined, this must be done before correcting for the inclination. If the interval is too short, say 0.9981, then all readings are divided by 0.9981.

(*c*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) Fixed stadia-wires are not likely to be displaced, and for this reason are used by many surveyors in preference to adjustable wires, especially where results better than $\frac{1}{200}$ are desired. The adjustable wires are apt to change their distance apart with every change of temperature. (2) When results no better than $\frac{1}{500}$ are required it usually will be found unnecessary to use either a special rod or an interval factor. (3) For very accurate work the tests for graduating a rod or for determining the interval factor should be made not at any one hour of the day, but during all hours of field-work, so as to approximate as closely as possible to the average conditions. (See p. 313.) (4) It is probably better in an extended survey to use a standard rod and to correct readings by the interval factor than to use special graduations, for the following reasons: Subsequent tests of intervals can be made without repainting or regraduating the rod; rods can be interchanged among transits or used with new transits; rods can be used for leveling without computation; leveling-rods can be used as stadia-rods; rods can be used by observers having different personal equations.

377. Method of Reading the Rod. The reading of the rod is learned more easily from actual practice than from any printed directions. The main object is to determine as accurately as possible how much of the rod is included between the stadia-wires. In doing this, sight at a point on the rod about as far above the ground as the telescope is above the ground. Move the telescope slightly up or down until either the upper or lower stadia-wire exactly strikes the nearest even-foot mark on the rod, and then observe how far from that even-foot mark the other stadia-wire strikes. *The graduations on the rod should* *be read in terms of distance.* Thus one foot on the rod stands for 100 feet in distance, $\frac{1}{5}$ of a foot stands for 20 feet, $\frac{1}{50}$ of a foot for 2 feet, and so on. Be careful not to mistake the regular horizontal cross-hair for a stadia-wire; do not use the former at all, except in special cases. In some instruments this danger is avoided by placing the stadia-wires so that when they are visible (in focus) the regular horizontal hair is invisible, and vice versa.

(*a*) *Common mistakes.* (1) To read between the stadia-wire and middle cross-hair, thus getting *half* the correct distance. Avoided by habitually estimating distances by eye, and thus checking the stadia reading; also by purposely reading and entering the half-distance in the notes, and then reading and entering the full distance independently. (2) Omitting an even hundred feet or multiples of ten feet, as 189 ft. in place of 289, or 129 in place of 139.

Practice. Before beginning the regular stadia survey, take a number of sights varying from 50 ft. or less to 300 ft. or more, and check each reading by measuring with a tape.

378. Distance and Elevation when the Line of Sight is Inclined. In the preceding articles it has been assumed that the line of sight in each case has been nearly horizontal. In hilly country it is necessary to incline the telescope. For such sights two corrections are involved: (1) If the line of sight is inclined, the distance obtained will correspond to the distance found by measuring on a slope, and this distance must be reduced to a *horizontal* distance. (2) If the rod is held plumb (vertical), as it usually is, it is not perpendicular to the line of sight, hence more of the rod appears to be included between the wires than would appear were it perpendicular (out of plumb). This false reading must be reduced to the true reading. Both corrections depend upon the vertical angle; hence, unless the notes are plotted in the field, it is usually sufficient to record the vertical angle and the stadia reading as it actually appears on the rod. The reductions are then made in the office by the use of tables or diagrams or slide-rule, based upon the formula derived in the next article. It will also appear that the stadia method is useful for determining elevations by trigonometric leveling.

379. Inclined Readings. In Fig. 379, let the line of sight be inclined at an angle a. If the rod were held *perpendicular* to the line of sight the stadia reading $b'e'$ would give the distance Fm, which, when added to the constant C, would be equal to the distance Bm. This could be reduced to the required distance BE by multiplying Bm by $\cos a$. But it is not practicable to incline the rod until it is perpendicular to the line of sight, and even if it were complications would arise in getting elevations, hence the general practice is to hold the rod plumb. This introduces another error, since it makes the reading be longer than the true reading $b'e'$. The angle $bb'm$ is

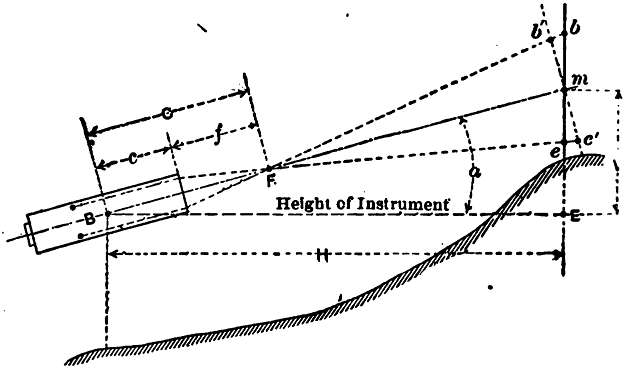

FIG. 379.

approximately a right angle, and $bmb' = a$, hence $be \cos a = b'e'$ (very nearly). In other words, the distance actually read must be multiplied by $\cos a$ to get Fm. Hence

$$Bm = C + Fm = C + \frac{f}{i}(be \cos a). \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (1)$$

But $BE = Bm \cos a$, hence

$$BE = C \cos a + \frac{f}{i} be \cos^2 a. \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (2)$$

If R represents the actual reading $\left(\frac{f}{i} be\right)$, then equation (2) may be written:

Horizontal distance: $BE = H = R - R \sin^2 a + C \cos a$. . (3)

In finding elevations, the vertical distance Em is required. $Em = Bm \sin a$. Substituting the value of Bm from equation (1),

$$Em = V = \frac{f}{i} be(\cos a \sin a) + C \sin a;$$

and remembering that

$$\cos a \sin a = \tfrac{1}{2} \sin 2a$$

we get

Vertical distance: $V = R\,\tfrac{1}{2} \sin 2a + C \sin a$. . . (4)

380. The Reduction of Inclined Stadia Readings. In using formulas (3) and (4), keep in mind the fact that $C \cos a$ is practically equal to C for any vertical angle likely to occur in practice, and that $C \sin a$ is a negligible quantity. The quantities to be found therefore are $R \sin^2 a$ for *horizontal* distances, and $R\frac{1}{2} \sin 2a$ for *vertical* distances. These reductions are usually made in the office, although it will be necessary occasionally to reduce distances in the field. The use of stadia reduction tables or geometrical diagrams greatly facilitates the work. (See chapter on Working up Field Notes, Part II.)

381. To Measure Horizontal Distances with the Stadia. (*a*) *On level ground.* Keeping the telescope as nearly horizontal as possible, bring one of the stadia-wires to coincide with the nearest even-foot mark on the rod, and read the other wire *in terms of distance,* as directed on p. 305.

(*b*) *On sloping ground.* (1) Sight at a point on the rod about as far above the ground as the telescope is above the ground. (2) Bring a stadia-wire on the nearest foot-mark, and read and record the distance as before. (3) Read and record the vertical angle which the line of sight makes with the horizontal. (4) The true distance may be reduced in the office or in the field.

(*c*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) It is not essential to make one wire bisect an even-foot mark—it merely simplifies reading the rod. Clamp the telescope and use the slow-motion screw when the stadia-wire is nearly on the mark. (2) When the distance between two stations is too great for accurate reading, assume a point about midway between the two, read the distance to this point from each station, and add the two readings The objection to this method is that no check on the total distance can be had by two readings, one from each end of the line.

(*d*) *Practical questions.* (1) *How accurately can distances be measured?* This depends upon the magnifying power of the telescope, the fineness of the stadia-wires, the graduations on the rod, the atmospheric conditions, and the length of sight.

With the average telescope and atmospheric conditions the error in a 300-ft. sight should not exceed 1.0 ft. With high-grade instruments and favorable conditions, sights up to 700 ft. may be taken with an average error of less than 0.5 ft. or $\frac{1}{1400}$. Even better results have been obtained. (See also *Limits of Error*, p. 313.)

(*e*) *How long sights should be taken?* This depends not only on the conditions mentioned above, but also upon the accuracy required for the work in hand. In ordinary work best results are obtained when the length of sight does not exceed 300 ft. to 400 ft. At greater distances the stadia-wires will appear coarse as compared with the rod graduations. Occasionally, however, when the map is to be plotted to small scale and the limits of error are comparatively large, very much longer sights may be taken—sights, for example, of 2000 ft.

(*f*) *When may vertical angles be ignored?* This depends upon the accuracy required for the work in hand. The longer the sight the greater the absolute but not the relative error. The following table gives approximate values of the errors which will result for sights from 100 ft. to 500 ft., if vertical angles from 1° to 5° are ignored.

	100	200	300	400	500
1°	0.03	0.06	0.09	0.12	0.15
2°	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.6
3°	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.4
4°	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5
5°	0.8	1.5	2.3	3.0	3.8

If, for example, 300 ft. is the longest sight taken, the maximum error involved by ignoring angles of 3° and less is 0.8, while for a 500-foot sight it is 1.4. For 300-ft. sights and under the maximum error involved by ignoring angles up to 5° is 2.3 ft. Hence the common rule that in ordinary stadia-work, when sights average from 150 ft. to 300 ft., vertical angles up to 3° may be ignored; and in some work the limit is put at 5°.

382. To Obtain Vertical Distances or Elevations. There are two methods,—one is used when the elevation of one point is required with reference to another point very near the instrument, as, for example, the station under the plumb-bob; the other is used when the point of reference is not near the instrument, as, for example, some bench-mark too far away for the first method to be used. The two methods are explained on pp. 244 and 264; they differ only in the method of setting the target at the start.

(*a*) *Reference-point very near the instrument.* (1) Stand the rod up beside the transit with its base on a level with the point of reference, and set the target at the height of the supporting axis, or opposite the center of the object-glass when the telescope is level. (2) Hold the rod on the point of required elevation, direct the telescope, and read the distance as usual, choosing that even-foot mark which brings the middle hair nearest to the target center. (3) Make the middle hair exactly bisect the target, signal to the rodman to move to the next point, read and record the vertical angle. (4) The elevation may be reduced in the field or in the office.

(*b*) *Reference-point not near the instrument.* (1) Clamp the telescope in a horizontal position, bringing the bubble exactly to the center by the slow-motion screw. (2) Backsight on the bench-mark or point of reference, setting the target so that it is bisected by the middle hair. (3) Without disturbing the target, proceed exactly as directed in the preceding paragraph.

(*c*) *Practical suggestions.* Once the target has been set, any number of elevations may be taken, but it is very essential to state definitely in the field-notes what point is taken as a reference-point; otherwise it may be uncertain which of the two methods was used.

(*d*) *Practical questions. How accurately can elevations be obtained by this method?* This depends upon the accuracy with which the vertical angle is taken, the magnitude of that angle, the accuracy with which the *inclined distance* to the rod is measured, and the amount of that distance.

The following tables give the errors in elevation due to angular errors of 2′, 6′, and 16′ for 100-ft. sights, and also the error due to an error of one foot in distance for different angles. Angles of 1° and 26° are taken because they are the two extremes, vertical angles rarely exceeding 26° in practice—14° is approximately half-way between the two. The extreme error in vertical angles is not likely to exceed 16′.

Errors in Elevation per 100 ft. due to Errors of 2′, 6′, and 16′

	1°	14°	26°
2′	0.06	0.05	0.04
6′	0.18	0.16	0.11
16′	0.47	0.41	0.29

Errors in Elevation due to an Error of 1 ft. in Distance

1°	14°	26°
0.017	0.235	0.394

Notice that the larger the angle the *less* the error due to angular error, and the greater the error due to linear error. Thus an error of 16′ results in an error of 0.47 ft. if the angle is 1°, while it is only 0.29 ft. if the angle is 26°. On the other hand, an error of one foot in distance causes an error of only 0.017 ft. if the angle is 1°, but an error of 0.394 if the angle is 26°.

As vertical angles can be read easily to within 1′ and distances to within 0.5 ft., it follows that for a 100-ft. sight the maximum error need not exceed from 0.2 ft. to 0.3 ft., and will usually be less. Thus, for errors of 2′ and of ½ ft., the total error for a 1° angle is 0.06+0.009=0.069 ft., while for a 26° angle it is 0.04+0.197=0.237 ft (See also *Limits of Error*, p. 314.)

(*e*) *How close should distances and vertical angles be measured?* If the vertical angle is estimated to the nearest 15′ the angular error will not exceed 6′ or 7′, and if the stadia is read to the nearest foot the linear error will not exceed ½ ft. Hence for a 100-ft. sight the total error of elevation due to errors of 6′ and ½ ft. is for a vertical angle of, say, 14°, 0.16+0.118=0.28 ft., or about *0.3* ft.; for 26° it is 0.11+0.19=*0.3* ft. For errors of 6′ and 1 ft., the total error for 14° is 0.16+0.236=0.39, or about *0.4* ft. For a 300-ft. sight errors of, say, 6′ in a 14° angle and 1 ft. in distance would result in a total error in elevation of about 0.48+0.236=*0.72* ft.

(*f*) In most stadia work, especially in topographic surveying, elevations are required to the nearest foot only, and hence for such work *it is not necessary to read the vernier for vertical angles; estimate to the nearest 15′, reading directly from the vertical circle itself. Read distances to the nearest foot.* It is seen from the above that this should give elevations, as a rule, to within 0.5 ft. (See also *Limits of Error*, p. 314.)

383. Stadia Surveys are those in which the stadia is used for linear measurements instead of the chain or tape. This is the only difference. The same methods are used for running transit lines (Chapter XII) and for locating details (Chapter XIII), as in other kinds of surveys, and the suggestions for choosing stations, running transit lines, and carrying on field-work given in Chapter XIV hold good. Additional suggestions pertinent to stadia surveying are given below.

Practical suggestions. (1) Always read the distance between stations twice—once when the transit is at one station, a second time when the transit has been moved to the other station. *Record both readings, even if they agree.* (2) Important side shots may be checked by taking a half reading, using the middle hair and a stadia-wire, and then a full reading, using the two stadia-wires. Enter both readings in the notes. (3) Since the stadia method is best adapted for comparatively rough work, and since such work is not usually done in the city, but outside in places where local attraction is not so likely to exist, the azimuth method (pp. 120 and

156) is a favorite method for stadia surveying. (4) When taking azimuths or angles to important points, such as transit stations, hold the rod edgewise towards the transit. (5) Keep in mind the limits of error, and do not waste time on needless refinements in setting up, leveling up, and manipulating the transit. (6) Read the stadia first, then signal to the rodman to move to the next point, and read the vertical angle while he is going there.

384. Forms of Notes. The forms of notes given in Chapter XV may be modified easily to suit stadia surveying. The principal addition is a column for vertical angles, and frequently another column for corrected distances. When elevations are taken, columns are also added for vertical distances and elevations. When these last two columns and the corrected distances are computed in the office, the values may be inserted in red ink. The form of notes will depend largely upon whether the azimuth method, the angle method, or some other method of field-work is used. Some of the forms of tabulating notes are given below, and these forms will suggest others. The notes shown are those on the left-hand page of the note-book, and it is understood that these are supplemented by sketches and explanatory notes not shown here, but placed on the opposite page in the field book.

FORM 10

Line	Azimuth	Stadia Distance	Vertical Angle	Corrected Distances	
				Horizontal	Vertical
	S 50°30′E				624.76
AB	129°28′	286.0	+8°30′	279.8	+41.81
					567.25
A2	184°54′	121.5	−7°30′	119.4	−15.7

(*a*) *Interpretation.* Form 10 is similar to Form 7, p. 174. Unless the notes are plotted in the field the last two columns may be worked up in the office. The bearing S. 50° 30′ E. checks the azimuth 129° 28′ as closely as the needle can be read; this bearing was recorded because *AB* is a line between stations, and it is well for the notes to indicate that the azimuths of important lines, such as transit lines, were checked by needle-readings. The azimuth of *A*2 may have been checked also by glancing at the needle, but it was hardly worth while to record this bearing, as *A*2 is a side-shot.

The elevation of the bench-mark from which the rod was set (582.95 ft., see Form 12) should be entered in the notes—on the right-hand page if there is no place for it on the left-hand page. The distance 286.0 appears in the notes only once, but if the notes were continued to include those taken at Sta. *B* the check value would be recorded as *BA*, since the stadia reading is taken from *B*. The elevations 624.76 and 567.25 for *B* and 2 respectively, if worked out in the office, would better be entered in red ink.

FORM 11

Angle	Value	Line	Stadia Distance	Vertical Angle	Corrected Distance
DAB	2 | 101°20' 50°40'	AB	286.0	+8°30'	279.8
DA2	106°06'	A2	121.5	-7°30'	119.4

(*b*) *Interpretation*. This form is the preceding form modified to suit the direct-angle method (pp. 120 and 154). Vertical distances are not shown in the notes. When these are desired, another column, corresponding to the last column in the preceding form, may be added; space for this column may be gained by omitting the third column, provided it is understood that the last two letters in the first column indicate the line measured.

FORM 12

Point Sighted	Azimuth	Vertical Angle	Distance	Vertical Distance	Elevation
Transit at Station A.			Target set for rod		
held on B.M. No. 24			Elevation 582.95		
	S 50°30' E		279.8		
B	129°28'	+8°30'	286.0	+41.81	624.76
			119.4		
2	184°54'	-7°30'	121.5	-15.7	567.25

(*c*) *Interpretation.* The magnetic bearing is entered directly above the corresponding azimuth, and the corrected distance directly above the stadia distance. This leaves the last two columns for vertical distances and elevations. In topographic surveying, where a large number of side shots are taken in locating contours, this is an excellent form. The station occupied and the elevation of the reference-point are carefully noted at the head of the page. A sketch is put on the opposite page with points numbered (usually in the order in which the side shots are taken), and the names of party, explanatory notes, and all data which may be of future use complete the notes.

As a rule, the azimuth to some transit station will be the first entry after setting up. (Why? See precautions, p. 152.)

(*d*) *Sketches.* The sketches are fully as important in stadia surveying as in other kinds of surveying, because, as a rule, the stadia is used when a large number of points are located from each station, and the relative position of these points should be clearly shown. Suggestions for making sketches have been given on p. 167. In some kinds of work, notably topographic surveying, notes are often plotted in the field (p. 347).

385. Sources of Error in Stadia Surveying. In addition to the errors of ordinary transit work (Chapter X), stadia-work is subject to many of the errors discussed in connection with leveling (Chapter XXII). For example, it is important that the rod should be plumb, that the rod and wires should be in focus, and that the rod should be correctly graduated. The errors discussed here are those peculiar to stadia-work.

1. *Error due to change in the wire interval.* Best avoided by having *fixed* stadia-wires, which are not affected by changes of temperature and are not easily displaced.

2. *Mistakes or blunders in reading the rod.* Avoided by estimating the distance by eye; by taking a half-reading and then a full reading; and by reading from each end of a traverse line.

3. *Error in estimating the space on the rod intercepted by the stadia-wires.* This error is affected by the magnifying power of the telescope, the fineness of the stadia-wires, the character of the rod graduations, the length of sight, and atmospheric conditions. For very long sights a rod with two targets will reduce the error; for short sights a rod without targets is better.

4. *Error in determining the stadia interval.* This is one of the most important sources of error because it is cumulative. As shown in the next paragraph, atmospheric conditions affect the accuracy with which the stadia interval may be determined.

5. *Refraction.* Mr. L. W. Smith of the University of Wiscon-has shown that "differential refraction" (i.e., unequal

refraction due to varying densities in different strata of air) is a source of cumulative error in stadia-work.* The stratum of air within three or four feet of the ground is of greater density than the air above. Between the hours of 7.00 A.M. and 9.00 A.M., and between the hours of 2.30 P.M. and 7.00 P.M., this difference in density is comparatively slight, and does not seriously affect stadia readings; but during the midday hours of from 9.00 A.M. to 2.30 P.M. the density of the lower stratum is increased *upward* by the radiation of the earth's heat. The depth of this stratum varies for different hours and seasons, but is never over four feet. A ray of light above this stratum is not greatly affected, but a ray of light passing through it is bent upward. Hence the space on a rod included between the upper and lower rays is less at noon than in the morning, and the error is enough to seriously affect stadia-work where results of, say, $\frac{1}{1000}$ or better are desired. Hence the following:

Practical conclusions. (1) A stadia interval determined during midday hours will give distances too *long* when these distances are read during early or late hours, and, *vice versa*, if the interval is determined during early or late hours of the day, distances read during midday hours will be too short. (Why?) Hence do not attempt accurate work during hours which do not correspond to your interval determination.. (2) If work is to be carried on all day, determine the stadia interval by tests made at different hours throughout the day. (3) During midday hours do not take sights which require the line of sight to pass nearer than 3 ft. to the ground,—for long sights use a half-reading on the upper portion of the rod.

386. Limits of Error. Two questions arise in discussing limits of error in stadia surveying, viz.: (1) With what degree of precision can a single horizontal distance be measured or a single difference in elevation be found? (2) What error may be expected in running long lines where the errors from different set-ups are likely to be compensating?

(*a*) *Errors of separate horizontal measurements.* From a series of tests by 125 of the author's students it would appear that the probable error of sighting is not likely to exceed one foot up to a distance of 400 ft. The mean of ten probable errors *of a single observation* for each of four distances is given below. Each probable error was found from at least 25 readings by different students, several transits being used. The mean of the probable errors involves therefore approximately 250 readings for each distance.†

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* See Eng. News, June 6, 1895.

† See a paper by the author on "Some Tests in Sighting at Leveling-rods and Stadia-rods," *Proceedings of Connecticut Society of Civil Engineers*, 1907; also Engineering News, March 21, 1907.

Distance	90–125 ft.	185–210 ft.	285–300 ft.	415–435 ft.
Mean of probable errors	0.51 ft.	0.72 ft.	0.83 ft.	0.93 ft.

These results do not indicate the *discrepancies* to be expected between tape measurements and stadia measurements, since such discrepancies will involve constant errors, which are not involved in the mere act of reading the rod, such, for example, as errors in the wire interval and errors in rod graduations. In order, therefore, to determine what the discrepancies really were, each of the distances was measured with a tape. Each quantity in the following table is the mean of approximately 50 discrepancies, i.e., the readings of approximately 50 students at each transit and for each distance were compared with the tape measurement for that distance and the mean of the 50 discrepancies entered in the table.

MEAN DISCREPANCIES BETWEEN STADIA AND TAPE MEASUREMENTS

Distance	90–125	185–210	285–300	415–435
Transit No. 1	0.58	0.66	1.37	1.77
" " 2	0.65	1.30	1.09	1.30
" " 3	0.57	0.65	0.73	1.87
" " 4	0.44	0.63	0.93	0.99
Mean	0.56	0.81	1.03	1.48
Minimum	0.44	0.63	0.73	0.99
Maximum	0.65	1.30	1.37	1.87

The above results were obtained under *unfavorable* conditions.

With reasonable care the discrepancies in practice should rarely exceed the mean discrepancies of 0.5, 0.8, 1.0, and 1.5 ft. respectively, and will frequently be less than the minimum values of 0.4, 0.6, 0.7, and 1.0 ft.

(*b*) *The error in a single difference of elevation* is due to two principal errors, viz., (1) the error in the stadia distance and (2) the error in the vertical angle. The error in the vertical angle seldom exceeds 5′ of arc, and if necessary it can easily be reduced to less than one minute. The mean discrepancy in distance may be taken from the preceding table as 0.6 ft. for a 100-ft. sight, 1.0 ft. for a 300-ft. sight, and 1.5 ft. for a 400-ft. sight. The total errors given below are based on these discrepancies, combined with errors in vertical angles of 1′ and 5′ respectively.

	3°		5°		10°		15°		25°	
Distance.	1′	5′	1′	5′	1′	5′	1′	5′	1′	5′
100±0.6	.05	.15	.08	.20	.15	.25	.20	.25	.25	.35
300±1.0	.15	.45	.20	.55	.25	.60	.35	.70	.50	.80
400±1.5	.20	.60	.25	.75	.35	.85	.45	.90	.70	1.05

The above results indicate the *maximum* errors likely to occur in ordinary work with an instrument in good adjustment.

(*c*) *Limits of error for a series of lines.* The accuracy with which a single horizontal distance may be measured and a single elevation obtained by stadia methods has been indicated above. Since a stadia traverse is a combination of many measurements, and since most errors of stadia work are compensating, the total error may be expected to vary about as the square root of the length of the traverse (p. 45). For ordinary work the total error in feet should not exceed $0.04\sqrt{D}$ (in which $D=$ total distance in feet), and with proper precautions, such as those indicated in the last article, this limit can be greatly decreased. Smith, in his experiments measuring a base-line nearly a mile and a half long, got as the average error of 13 measurements $\frac{1}{2250}$, these measurements being taken under ordinary field conditions and at different hours of the day. The average error of five afternoon measurements was as low as $\frac{1}{3185}$.

Note. The error of closure depends upon angular as well as linear measurements (p. 160), so that results are not purely those of stadia-work. A very complete comparison of stadia and base-line work is given in the Engineering News, June 23, 1900, in an article on the surveys of the Oswego-Mohawk Ship Canal Route. The total errors of stadia measurements as compared with those made with the steel tape are given for varying distances. By selecting different distances and using the corresponding results as given in that article, one can obtain different ratios of precision. Thus for one distance of 2000 ft., selected at random, a ratio of $\frac{1}{2500}$ is obtained, while for another distance of 29 580 ft. the ratio is found to be $\frac{1}{1580}$. These ratios were calculated from the discrepancies between stadia measurements and tape measurements of the same lines. The discrepancies in elevation found by comparing stadia elevations with those obtained with the spirit-level were 0.04 ft. for the 2000 ft., and 0.49 ft. for the 29 580 ft. It is to be noted that the ground covered was very favorable for leveling operations.

Limits of error for given conditions may be determined after a short time in the field, and this is the best course to pursue if the survey is extensive enough to warrant it.

387. Practical Suggestions,—Summary.

1. Determine the constant $C=c+f$ and do not forget to add it to each reading.

2. Adjust the stadia-wires before beginning a survey. If fixed wires are used, see that the rod is graduated to correspond, or else determine an *interval factor*. Slight errors in the rod may be ignored in rough work.

3. As a rule, sight at a point about as far from the bottom of the rod as the telescope is above the ground, and then bring either the upper or lower wire to coincide with an even-foot mark. When the stadia-wires are coarse, lower the telescope until the even-foot mark can just be seen over one wire, and then

look just above the other wire, thus getting the distance more exactly than if the marks were entirely covered by the wires.

4. In reading the rod do not mistake the middle hair for a stadia-wire ; do not omit even hundred feet or multiples of ten feet—as, for example, 189 in place of 289, and 129 in place of 139. Form the habit of estimating distances by eye to guard against mistakes of an even 100 ft. and the mistake of reading the middle cross-hair.

5. The best results for single sights are obtained when the distance does not exceed 300 ft. When the total length of a line is found by adding a number of readings together, compensating errors affect the result, and longer sights are often better.

6. When the distance between two stations is too great for a single sight, assume a point about midway between, read the distance to this point from each station, and add the two readings. (What is the chief objection to this method?)

7. When only a small portion of the rod can be seen, take a half-reading and multiply by two. This cannot be done unless the middle hair is half-way between the other two.

8. Do not forget to read and record the vertical angle when the line of sight is inclined more than from 3° to 5°.

9. Make it a rule to read distances between stations *twice*, once from each station, and enter both readings in the notes.

10. Important side-shots may be checked by taking a half-reading and then a whole reading. If the middle hair is not half-way between the other two, take three readings, two of which added together should equal the third.

WHEN ELEVATIONS ARE REQUIRED

11. Assuming that the target has been set, either by holding the rod beside the supporting axis of the telescope or by backsighting on some point of known elevation, observe the following order of procedure: (1) Read the distance. (2) Bring the middle hair to the target center. (3) Signal the rodman to move to the next point to be taken. (4) Read the vertical angle.

12. Do not forget to make the field-notes very clear as to the point of reference for all elevations taken at a given set-up.

13. In obtaining elevations the longer the sight the more care-

fully the vertical angle should be read. The larger this vertical angle, the less important are small angular errors and the more important are small errors in distance. In work where elevations are required to 0.5 ft. and the lengths of sight do not exceed 200 or 300 ft., read the distance to the nearest foot, and the vertical angle to the nearest fifteen minutes without using the vernier.

14. Any error in the adjustment of the telescope level-bubble affects materially the measurement of vertical angles, hence special attention should be paid to this adjustment when elevations are required.

15. Finally, in all stadia-work keep the limits of error in mind, and do not waste time on needless refinements in setting up, leveling up and manipulating the transit.

CHAPTER XXVI

PLANE-TABLE SURVEYING

In this chapter five methods of plane-table surveying are explained, practical suggestions for the use of each method are given, and the different methods are compared. General suggestions for the use of the plane-table are made, practical questions of field work are discussed, and four methods of solving the "three-point problem" are explained.

388. The Plane-table consists of two parts: (1) the *table* or *board* supported by a tripod, and (2) the *alidade* with telescope attached. The edge of the alidade and the axis of the telescope are parallel.

The traverse-board is a rough form of plane-table, with upright peep-sights in place of the telescope.

389. Plane-table Surveying is peculiar in this respect—the field work and the plotting are carried on simultaneously. The board, with drawing-paper stretched upon it, is brought into a horizontal plane and kept there. The alidade, resting on the board, may be moved from place to place on the paper. When the telescope is pointed to any object, the *direction* of the line of sight is transferred to the paper by drawing a line along the edge of the alidade. Linear measurements, obtained by chaining or by the stadia, are laid off to any desired scale. Thus, as the field work progresses, it is reproduced in map form on the board of the plane-table, step by step, without the use of other instruments, and often without any direct measurements, angular or linear.

The plane-table is not intended for extremely accurate work, yet surprisingly good results may be obtained with it. It is especially useful for plotting indefinite details, such as roads, streams, and edges of woods, while at the same time more definite details, such as buildings, bridges, and fences, can be located accurately enough for most purposes. Thus many surveys may be made wholly with the plane-table, as, for example, surveys of parks and private estates, but its chief use is for filling in the details and contour-lines of large topographic surveys where the primary stations have been established with the transit.

Advantages of the plane-table method. (1) It dispenses with all field-notes (since the survey is plotted as fast as it progresses), and hence mistakes in recording measurements are avoided. (2) Since the map is made in the field, with the area surveyed in plain view, it is easy to see what data are necessary and whether or not any have been omitted which should be obtained. (3) By means of check-lines (p. 325) errors in measurements or in plotting are readily detected. (4) Inaccessible points are easily located without trigonometric calculation (p. 325). (5) The position of a point with respect to three known points may be quickly determined (Method 7, p. 4, three-point problem). (6) More ground can be covered in a given time than by almost any other method,—and with reasonable accuracy.

"The special advantages of the plane-table as a mapping instrument are due to the rapidity with which it obtains results by the method of graphic triangulation and to the facility it affords the topographer in determining his position at an unknown point by the graphic solution of the three-point problem.

When the latter method is applicable—that is, when the country is open and signals can be easily seen—its superiority over a system of traverse lines is manifest. The topographer is then at liberty to choose his ground without reference to his last station or to the one succeeding. He is not tied down to a backsight nor restricted by the conditions imposed by a foresight. He need not set up his instrument on an area barren of detail, nor cut his way through obstacles (bushes, hedges, trees) to establish a station at a commanding point of view." (*Wainwright* in *A Plane-table Manual.*)

Disadvantages. (1) The plane-table is cumbersome, awkward to carry, and requires many accessories for plotting. (2) Under certain conditions of climate and weather, the work of plotting is disagreeable if not impossible. (3) Angles are not recorded in degrees, hence are of little value for the calculation of areas or for other office computations. Areas may be determined by the planimeter from a plane-table map, but ordinarily the plane-table is not used for ascertaining areas.

390. To Set Up the Plane-table. Two things are aimed at: (1) to get the board level; (2) to get some point on the board over a corresponding point on the ground and, at the same time to have the board properly oriented.

(1) *To get the board level.* Set the tripod approximately level

to start with, two legs down-hill. (See hints for manipulating tripod, p. 88.) If the plane-table has leveling-screws, they are worked like those on the transit. (See p. 88.) When there are only three screws, one may be turned without turning either of the others—an advantage especially when the board is approximately level. When the table has a cup-joint (ball and socket), it is leveled by moving the board with the hands; when it is nearly level it may be moved slightly by tapping with the finger. During the process a level-bulb rests on the board; it is placed parallel first to one edge of the board and then to a second edge at right angles, occupying alternately these two positions until the two edges of the board are both horizontal.

(2) It is a little difficult (though not so difficult as it is sometimes represented to be) to set up a plane-table so that, after it is oriented, a point on the map representing the position of the plane-table shall be exactly over the corresponding point on the ground, unless the point on the map happens to be over the axis upon which the board revolves. In most work accuracy in this respect is not essential. By alternately orienting and shifting the table one can ordinarily in two or three trials get the position near enough for all practical purposes. A device for suspending the plumb-bob from any point on the board is usually furnished with the instrument.

Practical suggestions. (1) First get the table approximately level, orienting it roughly by eye, or, better still by the compass; then pick it up and move it bodily over the station. (2) The tendency is to set the board too high—bring it a little below the elbow, low enough so that all parts of the board may be reached easily, and yet high enough so that sights may be taken with comfort. (3) How close must the point on the table be over the point on the ground? The answer depends upon the limit of error adopted and the scale of the map. (See p. 105.) Thus, for example, a displacement of one inch would cause an angular error for a 500-ft. sight of only about 30 seconds.

In the greater part of plane-table work the scale is so small that the whole board may be considered as a point.

391. Five Methods of Work. Let *B* be the station occupied and *b* a point on the board directly over *B*. When the edge of the alidade is placed in coincidence with *b*, and the telescope is directed first to a distant point *A* and then to a distant point *C*, if the board is level the angle formed by the two lines drawn on the paper is the *horizontal* angle *ABC*. Thus the angle is represented *graphically* instead of being measured and recorded in degrees, as in transit surveying. In all other respects the methods of locating points are the same the analogy between transit work and plane-table work ld be kept in mind. Linear measurements may be made haining or by the stadia. In two of the five methods in plane-table work, linear measurements are not re- ed.

Radiation. Method of angles and distances, p. 134.

Progression or Traversing. Corresponds to the azimuth od, p. 120.

Radio-progression. A combination of 1 and 2.

Intersection. Corresponds to triangulation, p. 137.

Resection. A modification of 4.

e only linear measurement required in either of the last methods is the length of one base line.

te. In the first five figures on the following pages the actual bound- are represented by the large polygon, and these boundaries are shown n to smaller scale on rectangles representing the plane-table. studying these figures bear in mind that the size of the plane-table is greatly exaggerated. Thus, for example, it appears in Fig. 391 (I) larger than the house. It is customary to represent a point on round by a capital letter, and its plotted position on the plane-table e corresponding small letter.

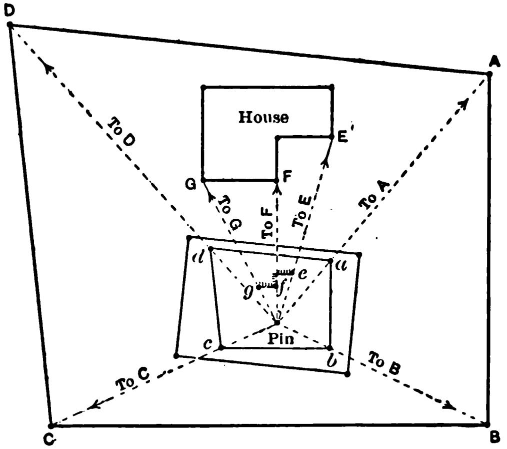

FIG. 391 (I).

RADIATION. *Method.* Set up the plane-table in a position which all points to be located can be seen. Clamp the so that it cannot revolve. Stick a pin in the board at any convenient point, and let this pin represent the point on the ground at which the plane-table stands. With the edge of the alidade against the pin, draw radial lines to all points to be located, and mark off the distances to these points to scale. (Method corresponds to that illustrated in Fig. 195 (*a*), p. 134.)

Illustration. In Fig. 391 (I) the radial lines are drawn to the four corners of the lot and to three corners of the house. The distances to these points as fast as they were measured were laid off to scale on the corresponding radial lines.

Practical suggestions. (1) Choose a position for the pin such that no point to be plotted will fall outside of the limits of the paper. (2) In the illustration shown it would be well to measure the lengths of the boundary-lines and scale the corresponding distances *ab*, *bc*, *cd*, and *da* to see if they agree. (3) The house is, of course, "measured up" to locate the remaining three corners.

Comments. This method is employed chiefly in combination with some other method; otherwise its use would be restricted to a comparatively small area, i.e., the ground which can be covered from a single set-up.

II. PROGRESSION OR TRAVERSING. In this method the plane-table may be moved from one station to another. After setting up over one station, the first thing to do is to *orient* the table.

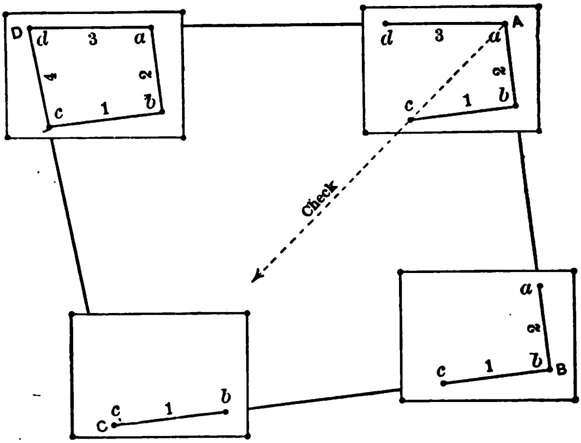

FIG. 391 (II).

This is done by making the edge of the alidade pass through the plotted positions of two stations, *one of which must correspond to the station at which the plane-table stands;* the table is

then revolved until the line of sight is directed to the other station. This usually amounts to backsighting on the preceding station, as in transit surveying; hence this method corresponds to the amizuth method (p. 120).

Illustration. Required to plot the boundary-lines *ABCD* in Fig 391 (II). Set up at any corner as *C*. Choose a corresponding point *c* on the board, and draw *cb* with the alidade directed to *B*. Measure the distance from *C* to *B* and lay it off to scale, thus establishing *b*. Set up at *B*, make the edge of the alidade pass through *b* and *c*, turn the table until the line of sight strikes *C*, and clamp. The table is now oriented. Sight at *A*, draw *ba*, measure *BA*, lay off the distance to *a*. Set up at *A*, orient as before by sighting along *ab* to *B*, draw *ad*, measure *AD*, and lay off the distance to *d*. Thus any number of stations may be plotted one after the other. In Fig. 391 (II), the lines on the board are numbered in the order in which they were drawn.

Practical suggestions. (1) When the area covered is small and the scale adopted is large, it may be necessary to set up so that the station at which the plane-table stands is exactly under the corresponding point on the board (p. 320). (2) Choose the first line *cb* with due regard to the limits of the paper. (3) After orienting at *A*, if the alidade is made to pass through *ac*, the line of sight should strike *C*. Such checks as this should be used constantly. (4) It is not necessary to set up at the last station *D* except as a check. (5) The house or any other detail could be located from the most convenient station by the preceding method of *radiation*, or by the next method of *intersection*. (6) If it is impracticable to set up over boundary corners (as is usually the case), establish stations and corresponding reference-lines inside or outside the boundaries, as in transit surveying. (See pp. 141 and 150.)

Question. How could the work have been started at *C* so as to plot the four corners in two set-ups, counting the one at *C*? How could the positions of *d* and *a* be checked in this case?

Comments. This method requires all stations to be accessible. It is used for the main lines of a survey (corresponding to transit lines), the details being located in some other way. It is especially adapted to surveys of roads, streams, etc., the stations being chosen at the bends, while the sides of the road or banks of the stream are located by offsets,—buildings, fence-corners, etc., by radiation. Frequently offsets may be sketched in by the eye. The method is often used for filling in details of a topographic survey, the primary stations of which have been previously established by triangulation with more accurate instruments. These primary stations are a valuable check on the plane-table work.

III. RADIO-PROGRESSION. A combination of the first two methods just explained. Characteristic features: (1) The table is always set up with its center directly over the station occupied; (2) for all sights at all stations the edge of the alidade passes through the same point on the paper, i.e., a point over the axis around which the table revolves; (3) the direction of any line of sight is transferred from the center of the board to the point representing the station occupied, by drawing through this point a line parallel to the edge of the alidade.

Illustration. In Fig. 391 (III) lines of sight are represented by broken lines,—the lines actually drawn on the table by full lines. Set up at *A*, with the center of the table over the station. Stick a pin in at the center of the table, and with the edge of the alidade against the pin, sight at *D*. Assume a point *a* and draw the line *ad* parallel to the edge of the alidade.

In like manner sight on B and E and draw the corresponding parallel lines ab and ae. The distances AD, AE, and AB are measured, and the corresponding distances ad, ae, and ab are laid off to scale. Move the board to B, orient by sighting at A (edge of alidade parallel to ba). As a check, sight at D and see if a line *parallel to the edge of the alidade* passes through both b and d. Determine points c and f by drawing from b lines parallel to the corresponding lines of sight in the usual manner. It is not necessary to go beyond this station, except to check the work, but in this case the plane-table was again set up at C, the location of d checked by sighting at D, and a third corner g of the house was plotted.

Practical suggestions. (1) Parallel lines may be drawn by placing one edge of a triangle in perfect contact with an edge of the alidade, and then sliding this triangle along the edge of a second triangle, as in ordinary drafting. If the two edges of the alidade are parallel, place the triangle against either edge as may be most convenient. (2) In the illustration shown, the house could have been located wholly from A, the most convenient station. Two or three corners having been located, the others are found by measuring the sides of the house. The lengths of the boundary-lines should be measured also. (3) If in orienting at B it is necessary to make the edge of the alidade parallel to ba, extra work is involved; moreover, ba may be too short for accuracy. It is better to draw a long line through the *center* of the table before leaving A, by pointing the alidade to B, and use this line for orienting at B. This means that a number of such lines will eventually be drawn through the center of the table for purposes of orienting it: hence it is better to omit the center portion of each line, drawing the two ends only.

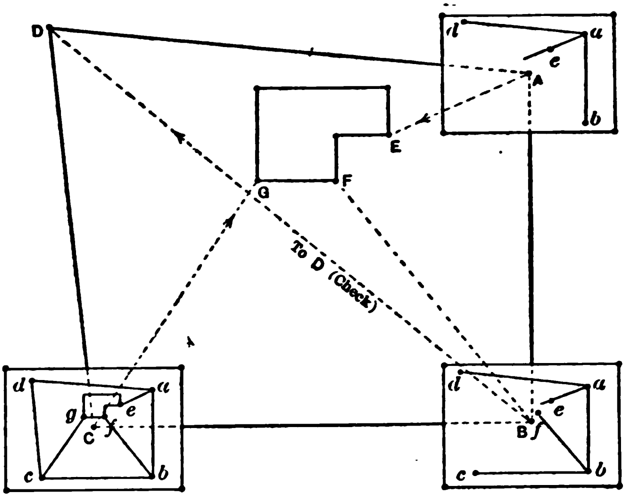

FIG. 391 (III).

Comments. The radio-progression method is especially adapted to mapping small areas to large scale, i.e., when one must be particular to have a given point on the table directly over the station occupied. When many points are to be plotted from any one station, much time is wasted in drawing parallel lines,—it is better to set the station on the board directly over *the station on the* ground and use the first two methods.

IV. Intersection. This method corresponds to triangulation (see Fig. 196, p. 137); one distance being known, no further linear measurements are required. The first thing to do after setting up the plane-table is to orient it as in the preceding methods. The work then consists in drawing radial lines to the points which are to be located. The distances will not be determined until these lines are intersected by corresponding lines to the same points, drawn at some other station.

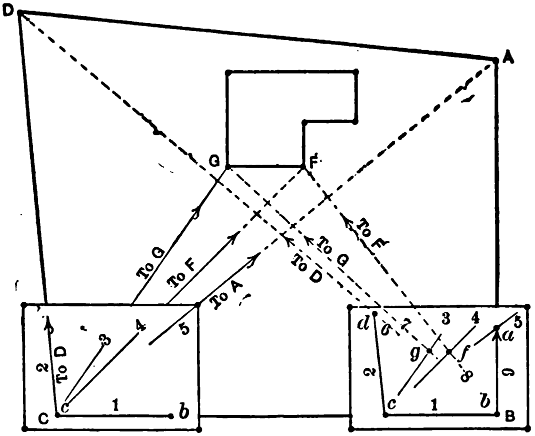

Fig. 391 (IV)

Illustration. Figure 391 (IV) is practically self-explaining. The table was first set up at *C*, the length of *CB* measured, and the line *cb* plotted. Lines 2, 3, 4, and 5 of indefinite length were then drawn, the table moved to *B*, oriented, and lines 6, 7, 8, and 9 drawn to determine the points of intersection *d*, *g*, *f*, and *a*. Had it been necessary to locate other points not visible from *C*, but visible from both *B* and *A*, the line *ab* could have been used as a base-line in exactly the same way. Thus the plane-table can be moved from station to station until all the ground is covered.

Suggestions. (1) As in all triangulation, stations should be chosen so that intersections are definite and not too oblique. (See p. 191.) (2) As this method is usually used for large areas plotted to small scale, it is seldom necessary to set up so that the point on the table is exactly over the station on the ground. (3) If a point cannot be located by a definite intersection from two given stations, consider if it cannot be located more definitely from two other stations,—this suggests a method of check-lines, i.e., locate points occasionally from at least three stations. (4) It is often desirable to sight on a church-steeple, the top of a tree, or some other prominent landmark merely as a check, even though the location of the point itself is of no consequence. Having oriented a table, it is very reassuring to direct the line of sight at a distant object and to find that the edge of the alidade passes through the corresponding point already plotted from other stations.

Comments. This method is especially useful for plotting inaccessible points, and for mapping banks of streams, edges of woods, and other indefinite topographic features. As it is difficult to choose stations so that all intersections on the paper will be definite, this method is of greatest value when used in combination with some one of the preceding methods,—it is especially valuable as an occasional check on distant points.

V. Resection. This method is a modification of the method of intersection. Its chief characteristic is that the point determined by the intersecting lines is *the station occupied by the plane-table* at the time those lines are drawn. This means that a plane-table can be set up anywhere and the corresponding point on the map can be found by *resection,* provided three points already plotted are visible from the plane-table. This method requires one linear measurement—a base-line.

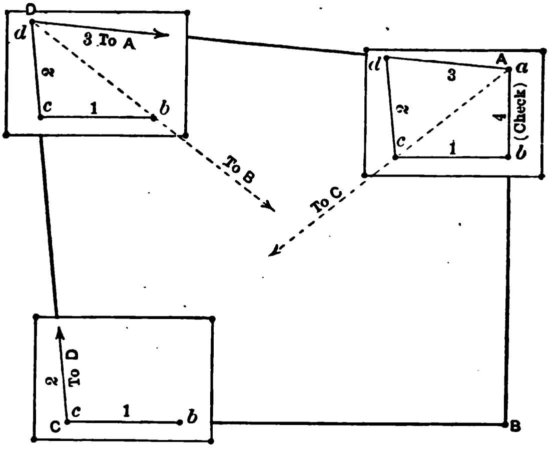

Fig. 391 (V).

Illustration. In Fig. 391 (V) set up at C, assume c, direct the alidade to B, measure CB, lay off cb to the scale adopted, and draw an indefinite line 2 towards D. Set up at D, orient the table by sighting at C with the edge of the alidade along the line 2; then move the alidade to b, sight at B,—where the edge of the alidade cuts the line 2 will be the point d. Draw an indefinite line 3 towards A. Set up at A, orient the table, center the alidade at c, sight to C, and find the intersection a with the line 3. As a check, center the alidade at a, sight to B, and see if the edge of the alidade cuts b.

Practical suggestions. (1) In setting up the plane-table, estimate about where the station to be plotted will come, and set this point approximately over the point on the ground. (2) When there are more than four sides to the survey a station may be plotted by sighting across the inclosure to *any* station previously plotted. This often gives a choice of two or more sights,—it is well to use one for locating the point on the paper, and the other for a check-sight. (3) Details are best located by radiation or intersection.

Comments. The method of resection is not a very useful method except in cases where it becomes necessary first to occupy a station and then to locate it on the map. The well-known *three*-point problem and the *two*-point problem are problems in *resection*. (See pp. 329 to 335.)

392. The Five Methods Compared—Summary.

1. *Radiation.* An accurate method, but restricted to one set-up. Used chiefly in combination with other methods.

2. *Progression.* Requires all stations to be accessible. Used only for locating *stations*. Corresponds to traversing. Useful for establishing main lines of reference.

3. *Radio-progression.* Adapted to plotting small areas to large scale, since the center of the table is always over the station. Not much used if many points are to be plotted from one station.

4. *Intersection.* Requires no linear measurements except a base-line, and is especially useful in plotting inaccessible points. Method is inaccurate when intersections are too oblique. Method used chiefly in combination with other methods, especially for check-sights.

5. *Resection.* Used chiefly for locating the station occupied.

393. Practical Suggestions for Plane-table Work.

(*a*) (1) *The paper* must be selected and handled with care in accurate plane-table work. Paper which has a good surface for drawing hair-lines and is least affected by atmospheric changes should be used,—for very accurate work double-mounted paper, for ordinary work single-mounted,—where there is much dampness celluloid sheets. Tinted paper is less trying to the eyes than pure white. (2) Most paper except the double-mounted paper can be rolled and kept in a metal cylinder or carrying-case,—diameter not less than three or four inches. It is preferable, however, to cut sheets the size of the board and to keep them *flat* in a leather or canvas carrying-case. (3) Paper should be so firmly fastened to the board that it is practically a part of it, so that neither wind nor friction of the alidade will disturb it. For this purpose spring-clamps, thumb-tacks, or screw-tacks are used. Spring-clamps are unreliable, and interfere with the free movement of the alidade; thumb-tacks are better, but the double-screw tacks with which the plane-table boards of the Geological Survey are provided are perhaps the best for the purpose. In any case the paper must be stretched tight and smooth, and occasionally it may be worth while to turn the paper over the edges of the board and paste it underneath. A waterproof cover for protecting the paper on the board in case of sudden rain is almost indispensable. If caught without it, turn the board upside down. (4) When more than one sheet is used it is sufficient in ordinary work simply to transfer to one sheet at least two points from the preceding sheet, say the last two stations occupied. In addition it is well to transfer such other points as are likely to be needed for check-sights. Points may be pricked through from one sheet to another, or if greater accuracy is required they may be transferred by any of the well-known methods used in drafting.

(*b*) *Manipulation of the plane-table.* (1) If there is no slow-motion screw for turning the table *after* it is clamped, it may be turned slowly *before* it is clamped by tapping a corner sidewise with the finger. After clamping look again to see that the cross-hairs still cover the point sighted at. (2) In turning the alidade, steady the standard with the left hand, while the right swings the rear end of the ruler. A fine needle may be stuck at the point on the paper representing the station, and the edge of the alidade kept against it. (3) Be careful not to disturb the board after it is oriented by leaning heavily on it, or by contact with its edge. The less the weight of the alidade rests near the edge of the board the better.

(c) *Plotting.* (1) The pencil used should be *hard*, sharpened at both ends (round point and chisel point). A smooth stone may be used in place of a sand-paper pad, but it is better to have the latter always at hand, attached to the board by a string. A needle for pricking points and a pencil-eraser are also needed. A triangular scale is recommended, and distances are laid off by laying the edge of the scale along the line. The method of transferring distances by dividers is a poor one. (2) *Draw as fine lines as possible, as few lines as possible, and as short lines as possible.* Coarse lines make accurate work out of the question, and the paper soon becomes covered with a network of lines which is bad enough when reduced to a minimum. Instead of drawing a line the full length of the alidade, draw a short line approximately where the point is to be plotted. Points on contours and similar points often can be plotted without drawing lines by marking off distances along the edge of the alidade while it is yet in position. Instead of drawing a long line, as, for example, when one is to be used for orienting, draw a short line at each end of the alidade. In intersections the point is simply marked or pricked where the second line crosses the first,—the second line is not drawn. (3) Several points on the same straight line may be located quickly by plotting the two ends of the line, and then intersecting this line by sights to the remaining point. (4) Draw all lines close to the straight-edge, so that each is hardly visible until the straight-edge is moved away; but if any part of the edge is raised off the paper, be careful that the pencil does not run under it, thus deviating from a straight line. (5) Above all, *have some good system of keeping track of points and lines*, so that those plotted at one station may be easily identified when the table has been moved to some other station. This is especially important in the method of intersections.

(d) *General suggestions.* (1) Colored glasses relieve the strain upon the eyes. (2) Rules for cleanliness: Keep the leavings of the pencil-eraser and dust of all kinds off the paper. Keep the triangles and the bottom of the alidade clean. Do not slide the alidade unnecessarily over the paper,—lift it up and set it down again to avoid rubbing. (3) At the first set-up in a survey draw a north and south line by means of the compass, using the edge of the box; at the second set-up check it. (4) The first thing to do after setting up and orienting the table is to take a check-sight to some distant point which has been previously plotted,—the last thing to do before leaving the station, and at other times when not employed, is to sight at the same point to see if the table has been displaced. One of the most important precautions in all plane-table work is to take check-sights frequently.

(e) *Vertical angles.* Vertical angles may be measured if the telescope has a vertical circle; this is most necessary when the stadia is used and vertical angles are required for obtaining elevations and for reducing inclined sights to the horizontal, as in transit surveying.

394. Practical Questions Relating to Field Work.

(a) *Choice of scale.* If the plane-table work is carried on in connection with a transit survey, it may be desirable to adopt the same scale as that used in the office for plotting the transit notes. This is not essential, however, as the plane-table map can be transferred easily to a map of different scale by means of the pantograph or by some other method. Assuming, however, that the choice of scale does not depend upon other work, the following suggestions are made:

1. Choose a scale in common use. For ordinary work some multiple of ten, as 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 80, 100, or 200 ft. to the inch. For government work standard scales are adopted, such, for example, as $\frac{1}{10000}$ and $\frac{1}{20000}$. (See pp. 488 and 489.)

2. If the size of the map is limited, as. for example, to the size of the board, estimate the extreme dimensions,—this will still further limit the choice of scale.

3. Choose a scale consistent with the limit of error. Thus, for example, if measurements to the nearest foot are wanted, 80 or 100 ft to the inch is as small a scale as should be used; 50 ft. to the inch would be better, since it is rather difficult to plot to $\frac{1}{100}$ of an inch.

(*b*) *Choice of stations.* The suggestions given on p. 149 for choosing stations hold good, remembering, however, that in plane-table work it is well to have each station visible from at least three others, though this is not essential. When a plane-table survey is made in connection with a transit survey, it should begin at one of the main stations and be "tied in" with other transit stations as completely as may be necessary for definite checks.

(*c*) *Methods of locating details* explained in Chapter XIII may be used, modified, of course, to suit plane-table work. Thus, for example, offsets often may be paced, and details sketched in by eye. The suggestions on p. 156 hold good.

(*d*) *What details to take.* In a large survey it should be clearly understood what details are to be taken by the plane-table party, and what are to be left for other parties.

(*e*) *Limits of error* depending upon the nature of the work in hand (see p. 159) should be kept constantly in mind.

(*f*) *Sources of error.* (1) Error in the position of the table. (2) Error when the board is not truly horizontal. (3) Error in sighting. (4) Errors of adjustment. (5) Errors in drawing lines. (6) Errors in laying off distances to scale. (7) Errors due to the expansion and contraction of the paper.

395. The Three-point Problem. *Given: Three points, A, B, and C, visible from a station P occupied by a plane-table; also a, b, and c, the plotted positions of the three visible points. Required: To plot p, the position of the station occupied.*

Remark. This is a special case of the method of resection where the position of the station occupied is the point required, but, unlike the general case (p. 326), no line known to pass through *p*, the required point, has been drawn at some previous set-up, hence there is no direct method of orienting the table as is the case on p. 326. The problem, then, amounts to finding some point *p* such that when the edge of the alidade is made to pass through *p* and any one of the points *a*, *b*, or *c*, the table may be correctly oriented by sighting at the corresponding point *A*, *B*, or *C*. Thus the solution of the three-point problem determines the location on the sheet of the station occupied and orients the table simultaneously. As in all forms of triangulation, the definite location of the point depends upon well-proportioned triangles and sharp intersections.

Solutions. (1) Mechanical. (2) Graphic. (3) By trial.

I. *Mechanical solution.* (1) Fasten a piece of tracing-paper to the board, and assume a point *p* to represent the station occupied. (Assume it as near its true position as can be estimated by eye.) (2) Center alidade on *p*, and sighting successively on the three visible points *A*, *B*, and *C*, draw lines of indefinite length along the edge of the alidade. (3) Shift the tracing-paper until the three lines pass through the points *a*, *b*, and *c* previously plotted from other set-ups, and prick the point *p* through to the paper. (4) With the edge of the alidade passing through *p* and *a*, orient the table by sighting at *A*. (5) Take check-sights through *b* and *c* to *B* and *C* respectively. If, because of little inaccuracies, the lines do not meet at *p*, the triangle of error will usually be so small that a slight movement of the board will correctly orient the table.

Comments. This method is quick, and, under favorable circumstances, easy to use and sufficiently accurate for most purposes. It is, however, somewhat cumbersome, and under unfavorable circumstances, especially in a high wind, not very practicable.

II. *Graphic methods.** There are several graphic methods, but only two will be explained.

(*a*) BESSEL'S METHOD. Fig. 395 (*a*) represents the table in three positions, but *over the same station.* (The three positions correspond to the three principal steps.) Let A, B, and C represent the three visible points, and a, b, and c their plotted positions.

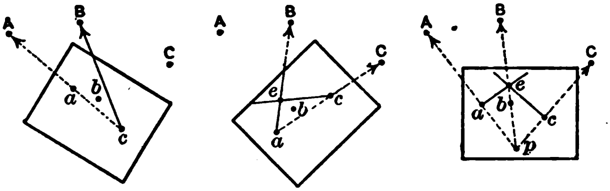

FIG. 395 (*a*).

First step. (1) With the edge of the alidade through c and a, sight at A and clamp the board. (2) Sight at B and draw a line of indefinite length.

Second step. (1) Unclamp; with the edge of the alidade through a and c, sight at C and clamp. (2) Sight at B and intersect the first line drawn, thus obtaining the point e.

Third step. Draw eb, and unclamp; with the edge of the alidade through b and e, sight at B and clamp. Center on a sight at A, and intersect eb at p.

Check. Center on p and see if c and C are on line.

Comments. The objection to Bessel's method is that the points e and b frequently fall so near together that the direction of the line between them is practically indeterminate; or else the point of intersection e comes off the board altogether. In many cases this difficulty may be overcome by expanding or contracting the triangle formed by the three fixed points as follows: (1) Draw a line parallel to ac, and find its intersection with each of the lines ab and bc. (2) Through the two points thus found, draw lines parallel to ae and ce. These lines will intersect in a *third* point of eb.

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* For a very complete treatment of the three-point problem, consult the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey Report for 1880, also *A Plane Table Manual*, by D. B. Wainwright, in the Report of 1905. See also *Handbuch der Vermessungskunde*, by Jordan, and Bauernfeind's *Vermessungskunde* Vol. II.

Bessel's solution is based on the geometric principle that ***in any inscribed quadrilateral the angle made by one of the sides with one of the diagonals is equal to the angle made by the opposite side with the other diagonal.*** **The board of the plane-table** ***is treated as a point,*** **i.e., compared with the area covered by the survey it has no dimensions.**

(*b*) Llano's method.* The three visible points, *A*, *B*, and *C*, and their plotted positions, are taken in the same relative positions as in Fig. 395 (*a*) of the preceding method.

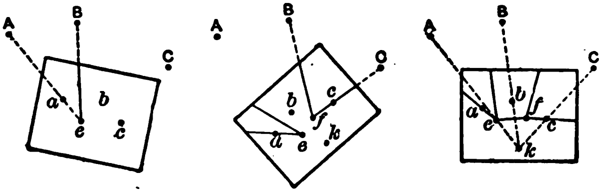

Fig. 395 (*b*).

First step. (1) Draw a line perpendicular to the line *ab* at its middle point, place the alidade along this line, sight at *B* and clamp. (2) Center on *a*, sight at *A*, and find the intersection *e*.

Second step. (1) Draw a line perpendicular to *bc* at its middle point, place the alidade along this line, unclamp, sight at *B* and clamp. (2) Center on *c*, sight at *C*, and find the intersection *f*.

Third step. Find *k* (the required point) at the intersection of two arcs, one with *e* as a center, and a radius *ea*, the other with *f* as a center, and a radius *fc*.

Fourth step. With the edge of the alidade through *b* and *k*, *orient* by sighting at *B*, and *check* by sighting through *a* to *A* and through *c* to *C*.

Comments. If more convenient, find *k* by drawing from *b* a perpendicular to the line *ef*; *k* is on this perpendicular and as far on one side of *ef* as *b* is on the other. Llano's method fails when *e* and *f* fall so near together that the location of *k* becomes indefinite.

III. *Methods by trial* are those in which the position of the required point is alternately assumed and corrected until its proper position is determined. The most satisfactory method of procedure is that known as the *Coast Survey method.*

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* See *Engineering News*, Dec. 29, 1904.

(*c*) COAST SURVEY METHOD. (1) Orient the table as nearly as can be guessed, first using the compass to bring it approximately into position, and then estimating the position of the point *p* with respect to *a*, *b*, and *c*, guided by the rules given in this article. (2) Clamp, and draw lines through *a*, *b*, and *c* by sighting at the corresponding points *A*, *B*, and *C* respectively. (3) If the table has been oriented correctly (which is unlikely) these three lines will meet in the required point *p*; otherwise they will intersect, forming a small *triangle of error*, or else two of the lines will be parallel and be intersected by the third. The position of *p* can now be estimated more nearly than before, the table newly oriented, and the process repeated. Thus the method is a series of approximations, the triangle of error becoming smaller and smaller as the orientation becomes more nearly correct. This method is used extensively, especially by the Government topographers, and is quick and accurate, more so than would at first appear.

Certain rules for guidance in estimating the position of *p* taken from *A Plane Table Manual*,* by Mr. D. B. Wainwright, are given below.

The relative positions of the three fixed points with reference to the new station have an important bearing on the strength of its determination.

In the following statement in regard to the different groupings of points met in practice, for the sake of brevity, the term "fixed points" will be understood to mean points already determined and plotted on the sheet; the "great triangle" referred to is one formed by the three fixed points, and the "great circle" is the circle passing through them.

When the new station is outside the great circle, the strength for determination of a position will be weak when the middle point as seen from the new station is the farthest of the three and the angles are small. (See Illustration 395 (*c*), Fig. 3.) If the new station is located outside the circle, and some distance below it, the angles are small and the determination correspondingly weak.

The determination increases in strength for given angles as the middle point approaches the new station. (Fig. 1.)

When one angle is small or 0° (points in range), the determination will be strong, provided the two points making the small angle or range are not too near each other when compared to the distances to the new station and to the third point; provided also the angle to the third point is not too small. (Fig. 2.)

When the new station lies on or near the great circle, its position is indeterminate. (See Illustration 395 (*c*), Fig. 3.)

When the new station is within the great circle, the strength of its determination increases as it approaches the center of gravity of the great triangle. (Figs. 3, 4, 5.)

There are a number of graphic solutions, but all save three are better suited to the drafting-room with its appliances than to the conditions which exist in the field.

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* Department of Commerce and Labor, U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, Appendix No. 7, Report for 1905.

Lehmann's method of solution is the simplest and most direct, and applies under all circumstances. The directions are stated in the form of rules.

The term "*point sought*" will be understood to mean the true position on the sheet of the projected point of the station occupied. The surveyor is assumed to be facing the signals, and the directions right and left are given accordingly.

Rule 1. The point sought is always distant from each of the three lines drawn from the three fixed points in proportion to the distances of the corresponding actual points from the station occupied, and it will always be found on the corresponding side of each of the lines drawn from the fixed points.*

The simplest case for the application of this rule occurs when the station to be determined is within the triangle formed by the three fixed points; the point sought must then be within the triangle of error to satisfy the conditions. (See Illustration 395 (*c*), Fig. 5.)

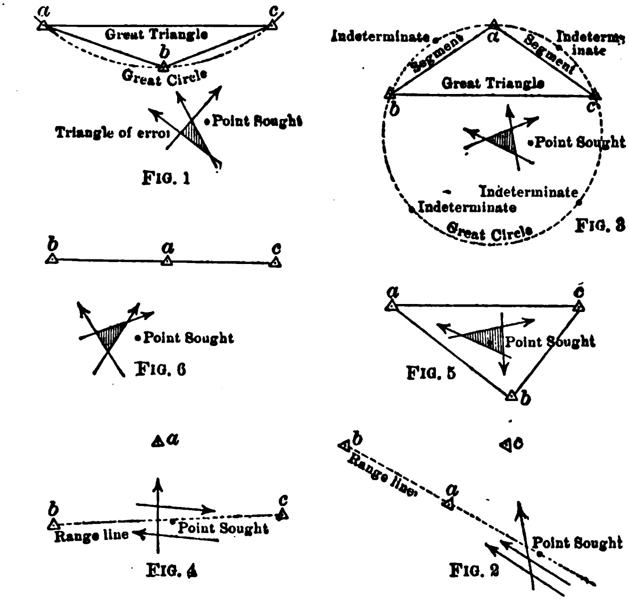

Fig. 395 (*c*).

Although Rule 1 is sufficient in itself for the solution of the problem, there are two suberdinate rules which materially assist the topographer in reaching a decision as to the proper location of the point sought with reference to the lines from the fixed points.

Rule 2. When the point sought is without the great circle, it is always on the same side of the line from the most distant point as the intersection of the other two lines. (See Illustration 395 (*c*), Fig. 1.)

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* That is, if it is on the right side of one line, it is on the right side of each one of the other two, and if on the left side of one, it is on the left side of each one of the other two.

Rule 3. When the point sought falls within either of the three segments of the great circle formed by the sides of the great triangle, the line drawn from the middle point lies between the point sought and the intersection of the other two lines. (See Illustration 395 (*c*). Figs. 3, 4, 6.)

Application of rules. In practice the topographer first decides the relation of the new station with reference to the fixed points, whether it is within the great triangle or in one of the segments or outside the great circle. He then determines the position of the point sought with reference to one line (if within one of the segments or without the great circle by Rule 2 or 3); it then follows from Rule 1 that it must be on the corresponding side of the other two lines. Finally, he estimates the relative distances of the three actual points from him and marks the position of the point sought a proportionate distance from the three lines.

EXAMPLES

Illustration 395 (*c*). Fig. 1. When the point sought is without the great circle, the intersection of the lines from *B* and *C* falls to the right of the line from *A*, the most distant point; therefore (Rule 2) the point sought must be on its right, and also (Rule 1) on the right of the line from *B* and *C*. Its exact position is then estimated according to Rule 1.

Illustration 395 (*c*), Fig. 2. When the point sought is on or near the prolongation of a range-line, it must be outside the parallel lines on the side of the line to the nearest fixed point of the range. In the figure it will be seen that the point sought must be outside the lines from *A* and *B*, and to their right to satisfy Rule 1, and also to the right of the line from *C*.

Illustration 395 (*c*), Fig. 3. When the point sought is on the circle passing through the three fixed points, the position is indeterminate, as the three lines will intersect at one point, although the table is imperfectly oriented. Another selection of points must be made.

Illustration 395 (*c*), Fig. 3. When the point sought falls within one of the segments of the great circle, the line drawn from *A*, the middle point, is to the right of the intersection of the lines from *B* and *C*; therefore (Rule 3) the point sought must be on its right side, and also (Rule 1) to the right of the line from B and from *C*. Locate it exactly according to Rule 1.

Illustration 395 (*c*), Fig. 4. When the point sought is on or near the range-line between the fixed points, the point sought must be between the parallel lines to satisfy the conditions of Rule 1. Its position with reference to the intersecting line follows from the same rule. In the figure the point sought, being between the lines from *B* and *C*, is to the right of each, therefore it is to the right of the line from *A*.

Illustration 395 (*c*), Fig. 5. When the point sought falls within the great triangle, it must fall within the triangle of error. No other position would satisfy the conditions of Rule 1.

Illustration 395 (*c*), Fig. 6. When the three fixed points are in a straight line. In this case the points are considered as being in the circumference of a circle of infinite diameter and the point sought always lying in one of the segments of the great circle. The treatment of this case is then identical with that of Illustration 395 (*c*), Fig. 3.

The preceding cases are all examples of the conditions which may occur when the table is deflected to the right. By turning the printed side of the illustration to the light and looking at the figures through the paper, they will appear reversed, and they will then be examples of conditions which may occur when the table is deflected to the left.

Repetition. When the true point has been estimated and marked on the sheet in accordance with the foregoing rules, a new orientation is made. If the lines from the three stations now intersect at that point, it proves the estimate to have been correct, and the position is determined. If a new triangle of error is formed, it indicates an erroneous estimate and the operation must be repeated.

(*d*) TWO-POINT PROBLEM

The occasion may arise where it is desirable to place the table in position at a given point from which only two determined points are visible This may be done by the following methods:

One method possesses the virtue of requiring no linear measurements, and demonstrates in a very satisfactory manner the effectiveness of the table in determining position by resection.

Illustration 395 (*d*) (all four figures). Two points, *A* and *B*, not conveniently accessible, being given, by their projections *a* and *b*, to put the plane-table in position at a third point, *C*. (The capital letters refer to points on the ground, and the small ones to their corresponding projections.)

Select a fourth point, *D*, so that the intersections from *C* and *D* upon *A* and *B* make sufficiently large angles for good determinations. Put the table approximately in position at *D*, by estimation or by compass, and draw the lines *Aa* and *Bb*, intersecting at *d*; through *d* draw a line directed to *C*. Then set up at *C*, and assuming the point *c* on the line *dC*, at an estimated distance from *d*, and putting the table in a position parallel to that which is occupied at *D*, by means of the line *cd*, draw the lines from *c* to *A* and from *c* to *B*. These will intersect the lines *dA* and *dB* at points *a′* and *b′*, which form with *c* and *d* a quadrilateral *similar* to the true one, but erroneous in size and position.

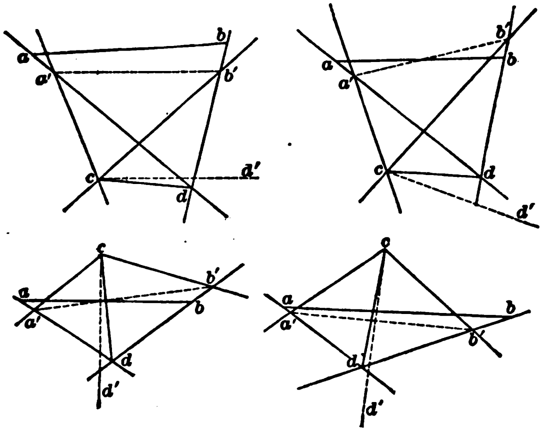

FIG. 395 (*d*).

The angle which the lines *ab* and *a′b′* make with each other is the error in position. By drawing through *c* a line *cd′*, making the same angle with *cd* as that which *ab* makes with *a′b′*, and directing this line *cd′* to *D*, the table will be brought into position, and the true point *c* can be found by the intersections of *aA* and *bB*.

Instead of transferring the angle of error by construction, we may conveniently proceed as follows, observing that the angle which the line *a′b′* makes with *ab* is the error in the position of the table. As the table now stands, *a′b′* is parallel with *AB*, but we want to turn it so that *ab* shall be parallel to the same line. Place the alidade on *a′b′* and set up a mark in that direction, then place the alidade on *ab* and turn the table until it again points to the mark; then *ab* will be parallel to *AB*, and the table is in position.*

Where it is possible to get the two signals *A* and *B* in range, it is easy to determine the position of a third point by a method long practiced by topographers.

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* See Wainwright's *Plane Table Manual* for a second method.

Set up the table anywhere on the range-line, and orient by the latter. Resect on the unknown point, drawing the line anywhere on the sheet most convenient. Leave a signal at the occupied point on the range-line and set up the instrument at the unknown point. Orient by the line drawn when at the station on the range-line, sighting on the latter station. The table will now be in a parallel position to that when on the range line, which is the true position, and the unknown point may be determined by resection upon the two fixed points and their projections.

CHAPTER XXVII

TOPOGRAPHIC SURVEYING

In topographic surveying, methods of leveling are combined with methods of horizontal location. So many combinations are possible that the subject cannot be comprehensively treated in a book of this kind.* The aim, therefore, is to explain thoroughly fundamental principles, and then to discuss briefly the most important questions which arise in ordinary topographic surveying. Practically every surveying instrument may be used to advantage at one time or another in topographic work, and hence a thorough knowledge is required of all of the methods of horizontal and of vertical control explained in preceding chapters.

396. Contour. An imaginary line on the earth's surface containing all points which have the same elevation above or below some assumed datum, e.g., the sea-level.

397. Contour Interval. Since there are an indefinitely large number of elevations there can be an indefinitely large number of contours. It is customary in surveying, however, to work with contours which differ in elevation by even-foot intervals. This difference in elevation between two successive contours may be one foot, two feet, five feet, ten feet, or any other fixed interval assumed to meet the requirements of the work. Different intervals, however, are not used in the same survey, i.e., the *contour interval* for any survey once adopted remains the same throughout the work.

Illustration. Imagine the earth's surface to be partly covered with water. Suppose that the surface of the water is lowered five feet at a time, leaving contact-marks at the end of each interval. These marks correspond to *five-foot* contours. If the surface of the water be lowered one foot at a time, the contact-marks correspond to *one-foot* contours.

Suggestion. Select a small plot of ground with an irregular surface, by means of the level find a number of points of the same elevation from 30 to 50 ft. apart, mark each point with a stake or a chain-pin and imagine a contour passing through these points. This is an excellent way for the beginner to see how a contour winds in and out along the surface of the ground; ultimately he must learn to follow with the eye the approximate windings of a contour which has *not* been staked out; he will be helped in this by imagining the ground intercepted by a water surface, as explained in the preceding illustration.

398. Use of Contours. A map without contour-lines simply shows the relative position of points without regard to elevations, but when contour-lines are added the approximate elevations of all points are at once evident from inspection. Such a map is called a topographic map,—it represents the configuration of the earth's surface.

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* For a comprehensive treatise on the subject, *Topographic Surveying*, by H. M. Wilson (John Wiley and Sons), is recommended.

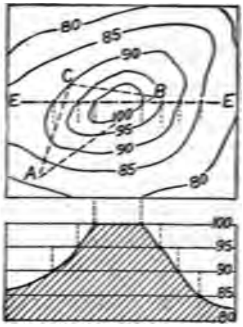

FIG. 398.

Illustration. In the upper portion of Fig. 398 the approximate elevations of the points *A*, *B* and *C* are shown by the contour-lines. Thus it is seen that the elevation of *A* is somewhere between 80 ft and 85 ft., *B* is somewhere between 95 ft. and 100 ft. while *C* is 90 ft.

The lower portion of the figure is a vertical section at *EE*. There is nothing shown by this section which is not evident from a study of the contour-lines. On the contrary the contour-lines show the exact shape of the hill better than the section. From the latter, one might suppose the ground to run in the form of a ridge, but from the contours it is seen to be a cone-shaped hill.

Question. If the hill were a perfect cone, would the contour-lines be perfect circles with a common center?

399. Contour-lines, Fundamental Principles.

1. *All points on the same contour-line have the same elevation.*

2. *Two contour-lines of different elevations cannot cross each other.* If they did, the point of their intersection would have two different elevations, which is absurd. (How can an overhanging cliff or a cave be an exception to this rule?) Contour-lines of different elevations sometimes appear to merge in one line as in the case of a vertical cliff.

3. *Two different contour-lines of the same elevation cannot merge and continue as one line.* For the single line would indicate a knife-edge ridge or depression, something which does not occur in nature. Different contours of the same elevation, however, often approach very near to each other.

4. *Contour lines near together indicate a steep slope,—far apart a gentle slope,—equally spaced a uniform slope.* It is evident that the horizontal distance between successive contour-lines indicates the rate of slope.

5. *A contour passing through any point is perpendicular to the line of steepest slope at that point.* This agrees with (4), since the perpendicular distance between contour-lines is the shortest distance. Ridge and valley lines cross contours at right angles.

6. *A closed contour-line with one or more higher ones inclosed indicates a hill* (*Fig.* 398); *with one or more lower ones inclosed it indicates a depression without an outlet* (Fig. 402 (*b*) p. 340).

7. *A contour-line cannot have an end within the limits of the map; it must either close upon itself, or else it must begin at some point on the edge of the map and extend continuously until it disappears at some other point on the edge of the map.*

8. *The contours at the top of a ridge or at the bottom of a valley either close or go in pairs.* For the highest horizontal plane that cuts a ridge must cut it on both sides; the same is true of the lowest horizontal plane that cuts a valley.

9. *No single contour-line can intervene between two higher or two lower contour-lines.* This follows from (8).

10. *No contour line should be drawn across a stream. The contour turns upstream until it disappears in coincidence with the line defining the stream or ravine.* Questions: Why cannot a contour turn *downstream*? If the bed of the stream or the bottom of the ravine rises above the plane of a contour is there an exception to the rule, i.e., does the contour-line cross? Is (10) an exception to (7)?

400. Ridge Lines and Valley Lines indicate largely the general character of the surface of the country.

Ridge lines or watershed lines: Lines along the tops of ridges dividing watersheds, i.e., on one side of a ridge line water will flow in one direction, on the other side in the opposite direction.

Valley lines or thalwegs: Lines along the bottom of valleys where the two sides of the valley meet. They are often indicated by streams and rivers which follow them.

The sharpest bends or curves in contour-lines occur at points on ridge lines and valley lines, the convex side of the curve being toward the lower ground for ridges, toward the higher ground for valleys. (See Fig. 398, p. 338, and Fig. 402 (*b*), p. 340.)

401. Topographic Surveying. The field work may be divided as follows: (1) Establishing stations and main lines of reference. (2) Locating contours. (3) Locating roads, buildings, boundary-lines, streams, and other details. (4) Taking field notes and sketching topography. The work may be further subdivided into two parts: (1) that which pertains to *horizontal* control (horizontal measurements), and (2) that which pertains to *vertical* control (leveling or hypsometry). In small surveys all of this work may be carried along simultaneously and by one party, but in more extensive surveys it is usually divided up, one party establishing the stations or principal points of horizontal control, another party establishing the elevations of stations, of bench-marks, and of other points of vertical control, while other parties follow, filling in contours and topographic details. No new principles are involved.

Points of horizontal control are established by traverses (Chapter XII) or by triangulation (Chapter XVI), while details are located by the methods of Chapter XIII.

Points of vertical control are established by spirit-leveling, trigonometric leveling, or by the use of the aneroid barometer (Chapters XIX–XXI). The distinguishing characteristic of topographic surveying, however, is the location and sketching of contours, and this part of the work calls for further explanation.

402. Locating Contours. There are two general methods: (1) locating points on each contour near enough together to determine the contour-line, and (2) locating points at random, but so chosen that when they are plotted, contour-lines can be interpolated. In either case each point must be located with respect to some line between stations (horizontal control), and its elevation determined with respect to the assumed datum (vertical control).

(*a*) *Illustration, Method* (*a*). In Fig. 402 (*a*) the dots represent points located in the field. These points were taken first on one contour and then on the next. Thus a number of points at irregular intervals, as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, each having an elevation of 100 ft., were located with respect to stations *E* and *F*, and the 100 ft. contour-line sketched through these points. Then a number of other points at irregular intervals, each having an elevation of 105 ft., were located and the 105 ft. contour sketched in. In a similar manner the other contours were successively established by locating the points indicated by the dots. The routine of the field work will be further explained in Art. 411 (*a*), p. 348.

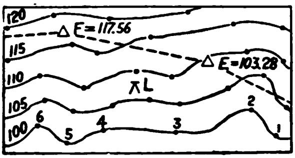

FIG. 402 (*a*).

(*b*) *Illustration Method* (*b*). The dots (Fig. 402 (*b*)) represent points taken at random in the field. Each point was located with respect to stations *M* and *N*, and its elevation determined. These points were then plotted and used to locate the points on contour-lines (indicated by circles). The latter were found by interpolation. Occasionally, by chance, a point located in the field happens to be a point on a contour-line. It will be noticed that a point indicated by a dot can be used for locating more than one contour-point. Thus, for example, circle (2) was interpolated between dots (1) and (4) while circle (3) was interpolated between (1) and (5). The elevations from the field notes were (1)=63.5, (4)=67.3, and (5)=57.5. For the methods of interpolating contours see page 497.

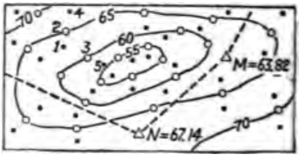

FIG. 402 (*b*).

(*c*) *Method* (*b*) *modified.* For a small area, as a building-lot, or a city park, or a field to be graded, Method (*b*) is often used in connection with a system of squares. These squares are simply a convenient method of locating points. The method is used also for more extended surveys.

Illustration. A building-lot about 160 ft. × 190 ft. is shown in Fig. 402 (*c*). A rectangle 160 ft. × 200 ft., subdivided into 20-ft. squares, was staked out, and elevations taken at the four corners of each square (at points indicated by dots). From these points contour-lines were sketched in by interpolation, as in the preceding illustration. When required by any sudden change in contours, intermediate points other than corners of squares may be taken. Each corner of a square is known by the letter and number corresponding to the intersecting lines. Thus the dot indicated by the circle is C8.

Size of squares. In any given case make the squares as large as possible, yet small enough to conform to the inequalities of the ground and to the accuracy required. In rough surveys over extensive flat areas, squares several hundred feet on a side may be used.

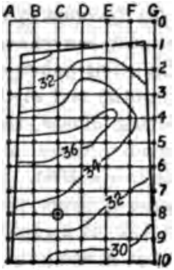

FIG. 402 (*c*).

403. Methods of Horizontal Control. (*a*) *Location of reference-lines.* In an extensive survey the first step is to establish the most important or *primary* stations. This is usually done by triangulation, and in Chapter XVI suggestions are given for locating the base-line, choosing stations, building signals, and carrying on the work of triangulation. Starting from any triangulation station, traverses may be run to establish *secondary* stations, each traverse closing on some primary station, though not necessarily upon the one from which it started. In this way the lines between triangulation stations form a skeleton upon which the survey is built, and this skeleton is further developed by traverse-lines, until every portion of the ground is covered. Any of the methods of Chapter XII may be used for running traverses. The azimuth method is, perhaps, the best, except for work in cities and in other places where the needle is useless as a check. The compass or the plane-table is often used, either in connection with transit traverses or in place of them.

Remark. For small areas triangulation is unnecessary, and only one system of reference lines is used, but for very large surveys it is not unusual to establish primary stations by triangulation, secondary stations by running transit-lines, and still other stations by the compass method or by the use of the plane-table. (See seventh illustration, p. 352.)

(*b*) *Reference meridian.* In extended topographic surveys it is customary to establish a true meridian (see Chapter XXVIII) and to "tie" the skeleton of the survey to this meridian. The most direct method of tying to the meridian is to measure the angle between this meridian and some main line of the survey, then the true bearing of the remaining lines may be calculated. The angle may be measured by repetition, as explained on p. 195, several sets being taken. (See also p. 389, Art. 445 (3).)

(*c*) *Location of details.* Details are located from the nearest or most convenient stations by the methods of Chapter XIII. Important points near stations are usually located by angle (or azimuth) and distance, but for much of the work methods involving linear measurements only are used. Thus roads, streams, fences, and even buildings may be located wholly by offsets (p. 138). For indefinite lines, such as edges of woods, banks of rivers, and irregular roads the method of intersections (p. 137) is a rapid method, especially if a plane-table is used, and it is accurate enough for the purpose.

(*d*) *Location of contours.* As far as horizontal control is concerned, it makes no difference whether the points to be located are on the contours themselves (Method (*a*), p. 340), or whether they are taken at random for interpolating contours. Any point may be located by some one of the seven methods given on p. 4, but probably the method most used is the angle-and-distance method. For angular measurements the azimuth method is used perhaps more frequently than the direct-angle method, because of the ease with which readings may be checked by the needle. For linear measurements, the stadia is more useful than the tape, since it is quicker, and the accuracy required for side shots is not great. Other methods of horizontal control include dividing the area into squares or rectangles (Method (*c*) p.341; see also fourth illustration, p.350), by locating contour points on lines at right angles to the transit-line (Offset method; see fifth illustration, p. 351), and by intersection (a method used principally in plane-table work).

(*e*) *The method of procedure* at any one station is outlined on page 154 for the direct-angle method, and page 156 for the azimuth method. If traverse-lines and other reference-lines have been established, some of the steps pertaining to the location of stations may be omitted—simply follow the directions for taking side shots. In such a case the work of locating contours may be begun at any station, but in the case of the azimuth method, the following precaution must be observed.

(*f*) *Precaution.* In starting at any station the transit must be oriented by backsighting along some main line of the survey, the vernier being set at the azimuth (or back azimuth) *already determined for that line*, so that all azimuths will be measured from lines parallel to the same reference meridian. Sometimes when the main lines have not been run by the azimuth method, but it is desired to use that method for side shots, the bearing of the backsight has to be calculated (p. 126), and this bearing changed to the corresponding azimuth. When the reference meridian is a true north and south line, it is well to set off the declination arc (p. 124).

(*g*) *Precautions in establishing substations.* When it becomes necessary to establish a substation more care should be exercised than for an ordinary side shot. Thus, for example, the azimuth should be checked by the needle, and, if the stadia is used, the distance should be read from each end of the line. The correct location of all points taken at a substation depends of course upon the correct location of the substation itself.

(*h*) *Reading horizontal angles to contour-points.* Side shots are rarely longer than 500 ft. An error of 10 minutes amounts to a displacement of not more than 1½ ft. at 500 ft., and of only about 0.3 ft. at 100 ft. from the transit (p. 105). As it makes little difference whether a contour-point is one or two feet one way or the other, and as limb-readings can be estimated easily to less than ten minutes, it follows that, as a rule, *it is not necessary to read the vernier in locating contour-points—simply estimate the reading from the limb.*

404. Methods of Vertical Control. (*a*) *Primary stations.* The first step is to ascertain the elevations of the principal stations, or else to establish bench-marks near them, so that a party can start from any station to locate contours, or several parties can start simultaneously from different stations. When the principal stations are located by triangulation, it involves very little additional field work to ascertain their elevations by *trigonometric* leveling,—simply measure the vertical angles. (See *Triangulation and Trigonometric Leveling*, p. 200.) Another method is that of spirit-leveling, and still another, for rough work, is barometric leveling (pp. 245 and 265). Sometimes all three methods are used.

(*b*) *Elevations of traverse stations* or nearby bench-marks are usually determined by spirit-leveling, the leveling party following close behind the traverse party. For compass traverses the aneroid barometer will sometimes give close enough results (p. 267). Permanent bench-marks should be placed near stations and in other places where they will be of use in contour work.

(*c*) *Elevations of contour-points.* When each contour is run in separately (Method (*a*), p. 340), points at the elevation of the contour are usually determined by spirit-leveling, either an ordinary level or a hand-level being used. The spirit-level may be used also for finding the elevations of points taken at random (Method (*b*), p. 340), but when such points are on steep slopes not many of them can be taken without moving the level—a decided disadvantage. It is better in such cases to use the stadia-vertical-angle method (explained on p. 308), so that points up and down the slope can be taken from one set-up. A third method used in rough work is to find the elevation of points by the aneroid barometer.

(*d*) *Reading vertical angles to contour-points.* The directions for measuring horizontal angles (Art. 403 (*h*)) hold good for vertical angles also. For a sight from 100 to 200-ft. long an error of 10 min. causes an error of from 0.3 ft. to 0.6 ft. in elevation; this is no more than the difference in height between the top and bottom of a grass hummock, hence the absurdity of reading vertical angles to the nearest minute in getting heights for contours in ordinary work. Occasionally, on long sights, it may be necessary to consult the vernier, but *most of the angles should be read directly from the vertical arc, estimating the minutes.* (See p. 309.)

405. Choosing Stations for Horizontal Control. When stations for horizontal control are established by triangulation, the accuracy of the work will depend, to a great extent, on the proper proportions of each triangle (p. 192). When traverses are run, the suggestions for choosing stations given in Art. 216, page 149 should be followed. In general, contours are most easily controlled from stations along ridge lines and valley lines. Stations should be located also near prominent topographic features, such as deep gulleys, high cliffs, ponds, lakes, and watercourses. (See Art. 247, p. 192 for other suggestions concerning the choice of primary stations.)

406. Choosing Stations for Vertical Control. In triangulation, stations should be chosen with proper regard for vertical control as well as horizontal control, especially if trigonometric leveling is employed. In traverses, if the suggestions of the preceding paragraph are followed, the stations, as a rule, will be well located for vertical control.

407. Choosing the Controlling Points of Contours. In running in contours by Method (*a*), p. 340, points should be chosen near enough together, so that no appreciable error will exist when the contour-lines are sketched through them. This will depend to a large extent upon (1) the regular or irregular nature of the ground, and (2) upon the scale adopted for the map. The critical points of contours are usually apparent to the eye and these points should always be taken. Thus, points should be near together at sharp curves or abrupt changes in direction,—farthest apart where contours are nearly straight. In uniform slopes the highest and lowest contours having been run in, the others can frequently be interpolated without any field work, or perhaps every fifth contour may be located and the others interpolated.

(*a*) When contours are interpolated from points taken at random (second method, p. 340) the preceding suggestions still hold good, the points in general being taken close together for uneven ground or steep slopes and farther apart for even ground or gentle slopes. In this method points on ridge lines, valley ines, tops and bottoms and changes of slope should, as far as possible, be located.

In either method it is a waste of time to take points too near together when the scale of the map is small, while it leads to inaccuracy to take them too far apart when the scale is large.

408. Choosing Contour Intervals. The contour interval depends almost entirely upon the purpose of the survey. Thus, for example, in the survey of a city lot, a two-foot interval or even a one-foot interval may be necessary; for the preliminary survey in railway location a five-foot interval is often adopted; for more extended surveys, such as the United States Geological Survey, 20-ft., 50-ft., and even 200-ft. intervals are used.

409. The Choice of Methods and of Instruments in topographic surveying depends upon the nature of the ground and the purpose for which the survey is made, especially upon the related questions of speed and accuracy. Practically every method and every instrument may be used to advantage at one time or another in topographic surveying.* Even in the same survey various parts of the work may call for the use of different methods and different instruments. Thus, for example, in an extensive survey less accurate methods and instruments are used for running secondary traverses than for establishing the primary stations or skeleton upon which the survey is hung, while the contours and topographic details may be filled in by the use of still less accurate methods and instruments.

The instruments and methods chosen for vertical control should correspond in accuracy to those chosen for horizontal control. For example, if rough instruments are used for locating points, rough instruments are used for finding their elevations. There are, of course, exceptions to this rule. Consistent accuracy should be maintained between linear and angular measurement. For example, it is necessary to measure the base-line of the triangulation with great accuracy, but compass-lines may be measured roughly or even paced in some cases.

The number of possible combinations of instruments and of methods is too large to be given in detail, but some of the most common combinations are suggested below.

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* Even the camera may be used to advantage in topographic surveys extending over large areas, and the science of photographic surveying constitutes a branch in itself. See Wilson's *Topographic Surveying*, p. 292, and *An Elementary Treatise on Photographic Methods and Instruments* by J. A. Flemer (John Wiley and Sons).

COMBINATIONS OF INSTRUMENTS AND METHODS

Points Located	Horizontal Control		Vertical Control	
	Instruments	Methods	Instruments	Method of Leveling
Triangulation Stations	Transit	Triangulation	Transit or level	Trigonometric or spirit
Primary Traverse	Transit and tape	Traversing	Level	Spirit
Secondary "	Transit, tape or stadia	Traversing—Azimuths	Level	Spirit
" "	Compass and chain	Traversing—Bearings	Level or barometer	Spirit or barometric
" "	Plane table, tape or stadia	Traversing	Level or barometer	Spirit or barometric
Contours........	Transit, tape or stadia	Azimuths or squares	Transit or level	Vertical angle or spirit
"	Compass, chain or pacing	Bearings or squares	Level or barometer	Spirit or barometric
"	Plane table, tape or stadia	Radiation, intersections	Level or vertical arc	Spirit or vertical angle
"	Traverse board, chain, pacing	Radiation, intersections	Hand level or barometer	Spirit or barometric

410. Field Notes. There are two general methods of keeping field notes in topographic surveying: (1) Keeping them according to one of the methods of Chapter XV, making no attempt to plot to scale. (2) Plotting the notes to scale and carefully sketching the contour-lines in the field. The latter method requires more time in the field, but saves time in the office. The first method is generally used for small areas, the second for large areas.

First Method. The combination method (p. 166) is generally preferred. The points on the sketch on the right-hand page should be carefully numbered to conform to some well-understood system. Thus, for example, all points on the 100-ft. contour may be numbered 100 regardless of location, all points on the 105-ft. contour may be numbered 105 and so on, the location of the points being given in the tabulated form on the left-hand page. If points are taken at random and contours afterwards interpolated, it is better to give each point a separate number and to note its elevation in a column set apart for that purpose. Notes for stations and details are kept by the usual methods.

Second Method. For large areas the results, as a rule, will be far more satisfactory if the topography is plotted in the field. There are two ways of doing this: (1) By the use of the plane-table and (2) by the use of ordinary plotting methods. The plane-table is especially useful for filling in details from stations which have been established previously by more accurate instruments. Sometimes the entire survey can be made with it. (See Chapter XXVI.) When ordinary plotting methods are used angles and distances are plotted as fast as measured, and contours sketched in. In this way errors and omissions are likely to be detected and doubtful points settled. Thus, with the land actually before him, the topographer can secure a more truthful representation of it than he could otherwise. Various devices are used to facilitate the plotting, such as sketching-boards, various forms of protractors, and especially designed cross-section paper.

Sketching. In order to sketch topography successfully in the field, one must have a faculty of selecting the most important topographic features and transmitting them to paper in their proper relations. This sense of topography comes only from long experience. In ordinary class work the beginner first plots points of known elevation, as fast as they are determined, and, guided by these points, he sketches in each contour; his imagination aided, perhaps, by the conception of a water surface. (See suggestion p. 337.) Successive points on the same contour should be joined as soon as they have been plotted, by an irregular line which corresponds as nearly as possible to the actual contour which it represents. If contours are interpolated, they should be carried along in a similar manner. It answers the purpose in many cases simply to interpolate contour points by eye; for more accurate methods of interpolation see page 497. Each contour should be marked in one or more places with its elevation.

(*a*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) Even when the combination method is used, it is best to sketch the contours as correctly as possible on the right-hand page of the note-book. A very good book for this purpose has the page divided by radiating lines and concentric circles, so that a point can be plotted quickly by azimuth and distance without the use of instruments. (2) A common mistake is to record the azimuth to one point and the distance to another point, as if they were taken to the same point. (3) When notes are plotted in the field, the drawing-board may be mounted on a tripod and set up near the transit. Instead of using a protractor it is sometimes more convenient to plot the notes on paper or Bristol-board which has printed upon it a full circle graduated to quarter degrees. This paper comes in sheets and may be obtained from dealers in such supplies. (4) Keep track of points as fast as they are plotted by marking each point with its elevation. This is especially important when points are taken at random and contours are interpolated, otherwise confusion will result. (5) A disadvantage common to all plotting operations in the field, including the plane-table, is the change in the paper due to moisture. This is partially overcome by using mounted paper, and by dampening it slightly before stretching it on the board. Let the paper extend over the edges of the board and fasten it on the under side by thumb-tacks close together. Sometimes mucilage is used. In very damp places, where water is likely to drip on the board, celluloid sheets have been used in place of paper. (6) The suggestions for choosing a scale for plane-table work (p. 328) hold good for topographic work also.

411. Field Routine. On page 346 several combinations of instruments and of methods are suggested for topographic surveying. In this article the field routine corresponding to each of several combinations is outlined. It is assumed in each illustration that the stations are chosen in accordance with Art. 405, p. 344, that the contour interval has been adopted to suit the purpose of the survey (p. 345), that all details, other than contours, are located by the usual methods (Chapter XIII), and that the controlling points of contours are chosen according to Art. 407, p. 344. The main points to be brought out are: (1) How controlling points are located *horizontally*, and (2) how their *elevations* are determined. (3) How to start at any station. (4) How the levelman, the transitman, and other members of the party may work together to economize time.

Each illustration begins with a statement of the extent of the survey, the accuracy and speed required, the instruments chosen, and the methods used. It is understood that the work pertaining to horizontal control and that pertaining to vertical control are carried on simultaneously, as far as possible.

Remark. The methods of procedure given in the following illustrations may be modified in many ways to suit conditions. Thus, for example, it is often advantageous to use the direct-angle method in place of the azimuth method, especially if stations cannot be occupied in regular order (p. 129). The illustrations suggest how to proceed for different combinations of instruments and of methods—this is the first thing to learn; then the student should begin a study of the advantages and disadvantages of the different combinations, a full knowledge of which can be gained only by extended experience in the field. Special attention is called to the last illustration on p. 352, since it combines in one survey nearly all the methods of topographic surveying and, hence, serves as a summary of this chapter.

(*a*) First Illustration. *Conditions:* comparatively small area, fair degree of accuracy, medium speed, 5-ft. contour interval. *Instruments:* transit, level, and leveling-rod (used also *as a stadia-rod*). *Methods:* azimuth method (p. 156) and

stadia method (p. 300) for horizontal control; spirit-leveling for vertical control; method of running in contours by ascertaining points through which they pass (Art. 402 (*a*), p. 340). *Party:* transitman, note-keeper or draftsman, levelman, and rodman.

Method of procedure for the levelman. (1) Set up where a backsight can be taken on some bench near by, and, at the same time, near enough to the transit station so that any point which can be seen from the transit will be visible from the level also. (It is assumed that benches have already been established near stations.) (2) Backsight, find H.I., figure the grade-rod for one of the contours. (See p. 243 for grade-rod.) It is well to begin with the highest contour that can be run in from the first set-up of the level and work down hill, or else begin with the lowest and work up hill. (3) When as much of the first contour has been run in as can be located conveniently from the transit station, run in two more in the same way, moving the target 5 ft. for each contour. By this time it will be necessary to move the level, hence establish a turning-point as far down hill or up hill as practicable, set up the level as far down hill or up hill as the turning-point will permit, find the new H.I. and the new grade-rod for the next contour, and proceed as for the first set-up. (4) Continue the work, moving the level as often as may be necessary until all the contour-points that can be located advantageously from the transit station have been taken. If the work has been carried on down hill from the station, it may be necessary to start again at the bench-mark and work up hill, or vice versa. When benches have not been established near the stations, it may be necessary to take extra turning-points in carrying the work from one station to the next; otherwise it is better to start anew at each station by backsighting on the bench-mark near it.

Method of procedure for the rodman. (1) Check the grade-rod for the first contour as figured by the levelman, set the target, find a point on the contour by moving the rod up hill or down hill until the levelman signals that the line of sight strikes the target, and then hold the rod for the transitman to take a stadia reading. (The levelman should not split hairs in sighting. Often it will be close enough if the line of sight strikes anywhere on the target.) (2) Repeat for other points, selecting only critical points along the contour. (See p. 344.) (3) Check the grade-rod for the next contour, set the target, and run in this contour by selecting critical points as before. Repeat for all the contours, establishing turning points whenever it becomes necessary to move the level up hill or down hill.

Method of procedure for the transitman. (1) Set up and orient the transit (p. 125). Assuming that transit stations have not been established, it will be necessary at the first station to assume the meridian of the survey. (See p. 121.) At other stations the azimuths of lines must be with reference to this meridian. (See *precaution*, 403 (*f*), p. 342.) (2) Take the azimuths to contour-points as fast as these points are established by the level party, reading the corresponding stadia distance and vertical angles. (It is not necessary to read the vernier for vertical angles in ordinary work—estimate the minutes.) (See Art. 152 (*d*), p. 109.) Vertical angles less than from 3° to 5° may be ignored. (See p. 307.) (3) Observe the method of procedure for the azimuth method (given on page 156), in running transit lines, and read the stadia distance between stations twice, once from each end of the line. Check the azimuths of all transit lines by the needle, and check at least every fifth side shot in the same way.

Method of procedure for the draftsman. (It is assumed that the notes are plotted in the field as fast as they are taken.) (1) Set up the plotting-board near the transit. If it is the first station, draw a long line near the center of the board to represent the meridian. Azimuths may be plotted directly from this line or from parallel lines through the stations, as explained in the chapter on *Plotting Transit Lines*, Part II. Use a protractor for ordinary work or else some form of plotting-paper. (See p. 347.) (2) Plot the azimuth to each point as soon as it is taken, and then the stadia distance, reducing the latter to a horizontal distance when the vertical angle is greater than, say, 3° (p. 480). Keep track of points by marking near each one the elevation of the contour which passes through it, and sketch in each contour-line as fast as it is determined by the plotted points;

try to reproduce each contour as it actually appears on the ground. When the points have been taken too far apart and the sketch shows the need of more points, indicate to the level party where the additional points are needed.

When the notes are not plotted in the field, use the combination method and the form of notes shown on page 311, but make the sketches on the right-hand pages represent the actual contours as nearly as possible.

(*b*) SECOND ILLUSTRATION. *Conditions:* Same as in the preceding illustration, except that points are taken at random and contours are interpolated. *Methods:* The only change in routine is in the leveling and in the plotting. The rodman selects critical points where the slope changes (p. 344), and the elevation of each point as determined by the level party is given to the draftsman. The latter plots these points as in the preceding illustration, and marks the elevation of each point; but instead of sketching contour-lines through the points, he interpolates them as fast as the plotted points permit him to do so.

(*c*) THIRD ILLUSTRATION. *Conditions:* an area of considerable extent, medium accuracy, rather high speed. *Instruments:* transit and stadia-rod or leveling-rod, board mounted on a tripod, with accessories for plotting, including protractor, scale, and triangles. *Methods:* azimuth method and stadia method for horizontal control, vertical angle and stadia for vertical control (p. 308); points chosen at random for interpolation of contours, (p. 340). *Party:* transitman, rodman, a computer, and a draftsman.

Method of procedure for the transitman. (1) Set up and orient the transit as in the first illustration. (2) Co-operate with the rodman in setting the target in order to determine elevations as explained on page 264. Take the azimuth, the stadia reading, and the vertical angle to each point where the rod is held. (3) Unless the lines between stations have already been established, locate them as usual. (See first illustration.) Usually in this work it is better to establish bench-marks near stations by spirit-leveling, but if this has not been done it will be necessary for the transitman to determine elevations from station to station by vertical angles.

Method of procedure for the rodman. (1) Set the target (or the rubber band on the rod) from the nearest bench, or in some cases from the transit station (pp. 244 and 264). (2) Hold the rod on ridge lines, valley lines, wherever the slope changes, and at other critical points (p. 344). Co-operate with the draftsman in determining what points are needed.

Method of procedure for the computer. Compute the horizontal distance from the station to a point as soon as the transitman has given the stadia reading and the vertical angle; while the draftsman is plotting the point, find the corresponding vertical distance, and from that ascertain the elevation of the point with respect to the datum used for the survey. See that the elevation of each point is marked near its plotted position. Use the table in the back of the book for reducing stadia readings.

Method of procedure for the draftsman. Plot the azimuth of the line to each point as soon as the transitman reads it (see first illustration); plot the distance as soon as the computer has ascertained it; mark the elevation near each point as soon as the computer has calculated it. Be careful to keep track of the azimuth, distance, and elevation of each point until there is no chance of using any one of these three data in connection with some other point. Sketch in the contours as fast as they can be interpolated from the points plotted, always with due regard to the ground as it appears to the eye; when in doubt call for other points to be taken near the doubtful places.

(*d*) FOURTH ILLUSTRATION. *Conditions:* small area, high degree of accuracy, low speed. *Instruments:* transit, tape, leveling-rod, and level (or the transit may be used as a level). *Method:* area subdivided into squares or rectangles for horizontal control, elevations of the corners of the squares or rectangles taken for vertical control, contours interpolated (p. 341).

Routine of the field work. Decide how to lay out the squares in order to cover the ground to the best advantage, what size to make them, and in what direction to run the lines (p. 341). Stake out the squares with the transit and tape. (Two or three set-ups on the outside corners will usually suffice, the interior stakes being lined in by eye.) Backsight on a bench near by, or establish one if none exists, find the elevation of the ground at each stake and in between if there is a sudden change in elevation, and thus determine points from which the contours can be interpolated. The level notes should include sketches on the right-hand pages, carefully lettered and numbered according to some well-understood system (p. 341), and showing all dimensions and measurements necessary for plotting.

Note. This same method may be modified for very rough work by using the compass for running out the lines, and a clinometer or some other rough instrument for ascertaining the elevations. Where the contour interval is large, the barometer may be used for vertical control, readings being taken from the altitude scale. If bench-marks have been established here and there, and the barometer is reset to correspond to the elevation of a bench-mark whenever there is an opportunity, contours may be sketched in a fairly satisfactory manner by this method. It could be used, for example, in combination with more accurate methods for securing a rough topographic map of a large wooded area.

(*e*) FIFTH ILLUSTRATION. *Conditions:* the survey progresses in one general direction as in railroad work; the main transit lines have been established, and the elevations of points at frequent intervals, say at every 100-ft. station, have been found by the method of profile-leveling; fair degree of accuracy, fair speed, and a 5-ft. contour interval. *Instruments:* two hand-levels, two contour-rods, a sketch-board, and plotting-paper. *Methods:* running in contour-lines by ascertaining points through which they pass; offsets from the transit line for horizontal control; hand-levels for vertical control. *Party:* two men, who do practically the same work, except that only one of them plots the contours.

Routine of the field work. Leveler No. 1, resting his hand-level on the top of a contour-rod, backsights on a station of known elevation to get the line of sight at the height of some even 5-ft. contour. (See illustration, p. 233.) He then sends Leveler No. 2 out at right angles to the transit line from a 100-ft. station to a point where the line of sight cuts the ground (working up hill). This point must be on a contour, and the offset distance to it may be measured with a tape, or in rough work it may be paced. Leveler No. 2 then rests his level on a contour-rod at this point, and sends Leveler No. 1 up hill to a point where his line of sight strikes the ground, Leveler No. 1 either carrying one end of the tape as he goes or pacing the distance. Thus the men alternately establish contour-points on the offset line as far up hill as desired, then they work from the station down hill in the same way. (How will the work going down hill differ slightly from the method just explained?) All the points on one offset line having been plotted, the party repeats the work at the next 100-ft. station. Thus the work is carried on, contour-lines being sketched by joining points of the same elevation. Offset lines are taken between stations where irregularities in the surface of the ground render it necessary. When the elevations of stations have not been established previously it will be necessary to take turning-points as in ordinary leveling in going from one station to the next.

(*f*) SIXTH ILLUSTRATION. A plane-table is intended primarily for horizontal control, but if a vertical arc is attached to the telescope, it can be used also for vertical control. In that case the entire work in the third illustration (p. 350) could be done with the plane-table, no other instrument being required. It could be used for horizontal control in the first and second illustrations (pp. 349 and 350), taking the place of the transit and of the plotting-board, the contour-points being located and plotted simultaneously as fast as they are determined by the level party. In the same way, it could be used in connection with the hand-level in the fifth illustration; in fact, the combination of the traverse-board (a rough plane-table) and the hand-level is a very common one.

When the horizontal distances and the elevations of points are reduced from stadia readings and vertical angles, the man who runs the plane-table may be assisted by a computer, whose duties are those described in the second illustration.

(*g*) SEVENTH ILLUSTRATION, SUMMARY OF METHODS. The following outline indicates the work done by a class in making a topographic survey of a rather extended area. It was desired to illustrate as many methods as possible, and to furnish work for a large number of parties, each party going from one kind of work to another until it had been given practice in all the different methods. This illustration will serve to summarize the methods of this chapter and to show how different methods may be combined in the same survey.

(1) Made a reconnoissance with the class, with the following objects in view: to get an idea of the drainage of the country; to ascertain what areas were wooded and what were comparatively open; to find favorable locations for triangulation stations (p. 192), and to plan the triangulation net (p. 191); to select a place for a base-line (p. 193), and decide upon its approximate length (p. 194); to decide tentatively where to run traverses and what instruments and methods to use.

(2) Secured from a railroad company the elevation of the nearest bench, used this elevation in adopting a datum for leveling, and started parties from this bench to run lines of levels to the two ends of the base-line, where the first benches of the survey were to be established.

(3) Built signals at points selected for triangulation stations (p. 198).

(4) Set a hub for each end of the base-line (p. 57), referenced each hub (p. 203), set parties at work measuring the base-line (p. 57).

(5) Set parties at work measuring the angles of the triangulation net (p. 194), and the vertical angles to triangulation stations required for trigonometric leveling (p. 200).

(6) Established a true meridian through one end of the base-line by observation on Polaris (Chapter XXVIII), found the true bearing of the base-line by measuring the angle between it and the meridian, checked this bearing by observations on Polaris at the other end of the base-line.

(7) Started transit parties to establish secondary stations by running traverses (direct-angle method, angles doubled (p. 154)), each party to begin at one primary (triangulation) station and to close on the same or some other primary station, all secondary stations to be established with due regard to their future usefulness (p. 150).

(8) Started level parties from the benches near the base-line to establish benches near secondary stations, checking whenever possible on primary stations, the elevations of which were found by trigonometric leveling in (5).

(9) Set plane-table parties at work in open country, some of the parties to start from primary or secondary stations, and, establishing their own tertiary stations by traversing (p. 322), to close on some primary or secondary station. Other parties are to set up in some commanding position from which three stations previously plotted are visible, and orient by

ree-point problem (p. 329). In either case contours are to be sketched
stadia and vertical-angle method as in the third illustration (p. 350).

) Set transit parties at work in wooded areas unfavorable for tri-
ation, each party to start from a primary or secondary station, es-
hing tertiary stations if necessary, and to close on a primary or sec-
y station. Method of procedure exactly the same as in the third
ation (p. 350).

) Set transit parties at work to run a preliminary survey for con-
ing a new road, tying this survey whenever possible to the main
y and running in contours with the level and hand-level as in the fourth
ation (p. 350).

) Detailed compass parties to locate high cliffs and deep gorges,
ences in elevations between top and bottom lines or other control-
nes to be taken with an aneroid barometer, and less steep slopes with
linometer, intervening contours to be interpolated. Compass lines
be tied to primary or secondary stations, and aneroid readings to be
ared with elevations at benches whenever possible.

CHAPTER XXVIII

DETERMINATION OF A MERIDIAN

BY OBSERVATIONS ON POLARIS

THE simplest and most direct method of determining a true meridian is by observations on Polaris. This method is easily understood, and easily carried out in the field. It involves almost no computations, and the few astronomical data required are easily obtained.*

412. Why Polaris is Chosen for Observations. The two points in which the axis of the earth, indefinitely produced, pierces the celestial sphere are the *celestial poles.* One of these points will be referred to throughout this chapter as the North Pole or simply Pole. All heavenly bodies *appear* to revolve once a day about the earth, describing circles on the celestial sphere. If the distance of a star from the Pole is less than the altitude of the pole, the circle which the star apparently describes will not meet the horizon at all, and the star will, therefore, neither rise nor set, but it will appear to revolve about the pole as a center. If there were any star exactly at the Pole it would seem to remain stationary, and to determine a true meridian it would be necessary simply to bring the cross-hairs of the telescope upon it; but, unfortunately for the purposes of the surveyor, there is no such star. Contrary to a general impression, Polaris (North Star) is not exactly at the Pole, but like all the other stars, it appears to revolve around it. The radius of its diurnal orbit is so small, however, that of all the stars, Polaris is the most convenient for determining a meridian. Any other star near the pole can be used, provided that certain data concerning it are known.

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* Other methods most used by surveyors for determining a true meridian depend upon observations on the sun. They are somewhat difficult to understand and to carry out in the field, more or less computation is involved, and, for accurate results, astronomical data are required which are not always at hand. These methods may be studied to better advantage in connection with a course in field astronomy, but for purposes of reference they are outlined in Appendix I.

413. Facts Concerning Polaris.

Before describing the method of taking observations, certain facts concerning Polaris will be given.

1. A simple way of finding Polaris is to find first the "Great Dipper" (Ursa Major), and then to follow the line through the two "Pointers," i.e. the two stars farthest from the handle; this line passes very near to the pole. (See Fig. 413 (*a*).)

2. Polaris is the end star in the handle of the "Little Dipper" (Ursa Minor). About 15° from the pole is another star about as bright as Polaris, and between these two is a curved row of three faint stars forming the handle of the "Little Dipper."

3. As Polaris, revolving counter clockwise about the Pole, reaches its highest point, *U.C.* (Fig. 413 (*b*)), it is said to be at its *upper culmination*, when it reaches its lowest point, *L.C.*, it is at its *lower culmination*. In either case *it is in the true meridian*.

4. When Polaris reaches the most easterly point of its orbit it is at its *eastern elongation*, *E.E.*; likewise at the most westerly point it is at its *western elongation*, *W.E.*

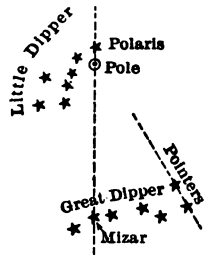

FIG. 413 (*a*).

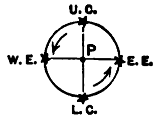

FIG. 413 (*b*).

5. The earth turns on its axis once in about 23 hrs. 56.1 m. (*the sidereal day*), hence Polaris reaches any point in its orbit, as, for example, its culmination or elongation, about 4 min. earlier each day than it did the preceding day.

6. The radius of the circle in which Polaris appears to revolve changes from year to year. This radius, called the *polar distance*, when first recorded was about 12°; it is now (1907) about 1° 11′.37. It will continue to grow less at the rate of 0.31′ per year (approximately) until the star is about 30′ from the pole, when it will begin to increase. In 1910 it will be 1° 10′.44, in 1915, 1° 08′.89, in 1920, 1° 07′.35. The *mean polar distance* or 90° minus the *mean declination* of Polaris is given for the *beginning* of each year up to 1920 in a table in Appendix I.

7. If an observer at the equator points the telescope of his transit at Polaris when at its *eastern* elongation, the line of sight will be *east* of the true north by an amount equal to the polar distance; at the *western* elongation the line of sight will be the same distance *west* of the true north. But if the observer is in a latitude north of the equator, and points his telescope at Polaris when at its elongation, the line of sight will make an angle with a N. and S. line *greater* than the polar distance, and the farther north the observer the greater this angle. Thus, for example, at the equator in 1907 this angle is 1° 11′.37, but at a latitude of 40° this angle would be 1° 33′.2, or 22′ greater than the polar distance. This *horizontal* angle between the north point and the line of sight to Polaris at elongation is called the *azimuth at elongation* and is not to be confused with *polar distance* since the two are not the same except at the equator. (This meaning of azimuth is the same as that given on p. 114.) *Azimuth* varies with the position of the observer, but *polar distance* does not.* The azimuth

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* A line produced indefinitely from the center of the earth through any point on its surface pierces the celestial sphere in the *zenith* for that point, and hence observers at different points will have different zeniths. The spherical triangle *PZS* having for its vertices the Pole (*P*), the zenith (*Z*), and a heavenly body *S* is an *astronomical triangle*. (See Appendix I.)

The *azimuth* of any star *at elongation* is equal to the angle *PZS*, but since *Z* changes for different points of the earth's surface the *azimuth PZS* must change also, but the *polar distance PS* at any given time is, of course, the same, for it is in no way connected with the position of the observer.

If the observer is at the equator his zenith must be 90° from the pole.

for any given latitude and date can be found from a table in the back of this book.

8. The *vertical* angle which a line of sight to Polaris makes with the horizontal is equal, *approximately*, to the latitude of the point where the transit stands. If Polaris were exactly at the north pole the vertical angle would be exactly equal to the latitude. (See Appendix I.)

9. When Polaris is at its upper or lower culmination a line of sight directed to it from any point on the earth's surface will be a true N. and S. line. This occurs twice every twenty-four hours.

10. For the year 1905 Polaris reached its culmination 4 min. 21 sec. after it was in the same vertical plane with *Mizar*, the second star from the end of the handle of the Great Dipper. (See Fig. 413(*a*).) For each year after 1905 add 21 seconds. Thus in 1910 the interval will be 6 min. 6 sec.

11. The *azimuth* of Polaris at any given time can be calculated by spherical trigonometry. At elongation it is:

$$\text{Sine of azimuth at elongation} = \frac{\text{sine polar distance}}{\text{cosine latitude}}.$$

414. Three Methods of Observing Polaris.

(1) At either elongation. (2) At either culmination. (3) At any time. The three methods will be outlined first, and then practical suggestions given for carrying on the work in detail.

I. AT ELONGATION. (1) Before the night of the observation look up in the table given in the back of this book the time of elongation of Polaris in 1905 for latitude 40° and longitude 90°, and make proper corrections (see Suggestion (1)). It is convenient, but not essential, to know the time of elongation within a minute or two. (2) Set up the transit ten or fifteen minutes before the time of elongation, and keeping the vertical cross-hair exactly on Polaris follow the star until it reaches its elongation (see Suggestions (2) to (8)). (3) Depress the telescope and set a point 300 or 400 ft. away (see Suggestion (9)). The line from the transit to the point thus established makes an angle with a true meridian equal to the azimuth of Polaris at elongation. The remainder of the work may be done more conveniently in the daytime. (4) Before continuing the work the next day, look up in the table in the back of the book the azimuth of Polaris at elongation for the given year and latitude. (5) Set up over the point occupied the night before, backsight at the point established by the observation on Polaris, and turn off the azimuth found in (4), clockwise if the

i.e., $PZ = 90°$, and if the star is at its elongation ZS must equal 90° also, hence the angle PZS must equal the arc PS, i.e., the azimuth equals the polar distance. As the observer goes north, however, his zenith moves towards P, i.e., PZ becomes less than 90°, *for PZ must always equal 90° minus the latitude of the observer*. The farther north the observer goes the shorter become the two sides PZ and SZ of the triangle PZS, but since the third side PS remains the same the angle PZS, opposite to PS, must increase, i.e., the greater the latitude of the observer the greater the azimuth of the star.

observation was taken at the western elongation, counterclockwise if taken at the eastern elongation. The line thus established is in the true meridian.

(*a*) *Method modified.* While the above method of procedure will often answer the purpose there are two objections to it: (1) There is no check on the work. (2) If the transit is out of adjustment so that the line of sight does not revolve in a vertical plane, the resulting error is likely to be large since the vertical angle through which the telescope is depressed after sighting at Polaris is large. Both objections may be overcome by taking a double observation. As Polaris does not move east or west more than about 5 sec. of arc for a period of ten minutes before and after elongation, there is ample time for two observations, the first with the telescope normal and the second with it inverted. If the two points thus established coincide, the instrument is in adjustment, otherwise the error may be eliminated by taking a point half-way between. (See the third adjustment of the transit in Part III.)

(*b*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) The time of elongation as taken from the table should be corrected for the year, and for the day of the month, but the small corrections for latitude and longitude may usually be ignored. This corrected quantity is the local time of elongation, but in the United States the observer's watch is usually set to "standard time" and unless he is on a standard meridian (75°, 90°, 105°, or 120° West Longitude) he must allow for the difference between watch time and local time. To do this, find the difference in degrees and minutes between the longitude of the place of observation and the nearest standard meridian (or the one corresponding to his watch time), multiply by four and call the product of the degrees, minutes, and of the minutes, seconds of time. For example, if the observer is at 70° 20′ West Longitude then: $75° - 70° 20' = 4° 40'$; $(4° 40') \times 4 = 16$ min. 160 sec. = 18 min. 40 sec. Hence elongation will take place 18 min. 40 sec. earlier if timed by the observer's watch. If the observation is at any time within four minutes of elongation the observed azimuth will differ from the azimuth at elongation by less than one second of arc, hence it is far more important to eliminate instrumental errors by two or more observations as suggested above than to observe Polaris at the exact time of its elongation. (2) It is well to test the transit for adjustment on the day of the observation, to make sure that the line of sight revolves in a vertical plane. For the same reason great pains should be taken in "leveling up" the transit at the time of the observations. (3) The point over which the transit stands during the observations should be chosen so that the point established after sighting at Polaris may be at least 200 or 300 ft. distant. It is well to select some regular station of a survey, or else, before nightfall, to set a point for this purpose on one of the main traverse lines, so that the bearings of all the traverse lines may be calculated easily. (See Sta. Y, p. 390.) (4) A quick way of bringing Polaris into the field of the telescope is to clamp the latter inclined at an angle equal to the latitude of the observer, and to turn the transit on its spindle until, looking along the top of the telescope, Polaris is in line. (5) The telescope must be focused for distant objects. As this is sometimes difficult to do at night it is well to mark the correct position, once for all, on the object-glass slide. (6) To illuminate the cross-hairs, hold a lantern within three or four inches of the object-glass so that its light will enter the telescope. If the transit is not provided with a reflector, tear a hole about an inch in diameter in a white sheet of paper and by means of a rubber band attach the paper to the telescope in such a position that the star can be seen through the hole while the rest of the paper reflects light into the telescope. A little experimenting should make the cross-hairs perfectly visible—if not try focusing the eyepiece while sighting directly at the lantern. (7) As no angle is to be measured, it is unnecessary to set the vernier on the limb, and either the upper or lower clamp may be used. (8) Bring the vertical hair on Polaris about 15 minutes before elongation and keep it on the moving star by means of the upper or lower tangent-screw. At eastern elongation Polaris apparently ceases to move east, but appears to climb up the vertical hair. It will soon move off the hair westward, showing that it has passed its elongation. In like manner at the western elongation for some minutes the star appears to stay on the vertical hair, but moves downward, and finally east ward. It is well to take two observations at elongation, one with the telescope normal and one with it inverted, as explained above. (9) Before depressing the telescope to establish the point on the ground make sure that all clamps are tight. To set the point bring a lantern into line by sighting across the top of the telescope and signaling with another lantern held at the transit. Set a stake in line a few inches in front of the lantern, driving it until the top is a little above the ground. Hold a pencil on the stake and a handkerchief back of the pencil but in front of the lantern. The handkerchief not only makes the pencil stand out with surprising distinctness, but it renders the cross-hairs plainly visible, and the pencil is easily brought into line and a tack set in the stake. Sometimes it is more convenient to hold a piece of white paper against the side of a fence or building, and then direct a strong light on a pencil held against the paper. A box, open on two sides, with a thin sheet of paper stretched across one of the openings, and a light behind the paper, is sometimes used. (10) Check observations may be taken at any time within an hour of elongation, by correcting the azimuth by the formula $c = kt^2$ (see p. 359).

II. AT CULMINATION. (1) The time may be taken from the table in the back of the book. It may also be known by observing when Polaris and Mizar are in the same vertical plane, and following Polaris for the proper interval afterward (4 m. 21 sec. in 1905, see (10), p. 356). Notice that in this second method, it matters not if the observer's watch is slow or fast. (2) Having sighted on Polaris at the moment of its culmination, depress the telescope and set a point as in Method I. The line from the transit to the point thus established is a true N. and S. line.

(c) *Note.* Since Polaris and Mizar cannot be seen within the field of the telescope, it is necessary to alternately sight at Polaris and then at Mizar to determine the moment when they are both in the same vertical plane. This is likely to be the source of a small error.

When Mizar cannot be used, as in the spring months, the star δ Cassiopeiæ is sometimes used instead. Culmination occurs about 5 m. 5. sec. (in 1905) after this star is in the same vertical plane with Polaris, the interval increasing at the rate of about 20 seconds per year.

The time from either elongation to upper culmination is about 5 hr. 55 m., while from either elongation to lower culmination it is about 6 hr. 3 m.

III. AT ANY TIME. (1) Set up the transit and sight at Polaris, noting the time of observation. The nearer to the time of elongation the more slowly the star is moving and the better will be the results. (2) Set a point several hundred feet away, as in the two preceding methods. (3) The azimuth of this line for the year, hour, and latitude may be ascertained at leisure (see suggestions below), and the angle turned off the following day to establish a true meridian, as in Method I.

(d) *Practical suggestions.* In this method it is necessary to know the local time of the observation to the nearest minute, and to ascertain the azimuth of Polaris for that time and for the latitude of the observer. This azimuth may be found from tables given in the "Manual of Surveying instruction," issued by the General Land Office,* or it may be computed. If the observation is made within, say, an hour before or after elongation the following approximate correction will give the azimuth to within a small fraction of a minute. $c = kt^2$, where c = correction *in seconds* of arc to be applied to the azimuth at elongation, t = time of observation before or after elongation *in minutes*, and k a coefficient depending on the latitude. For 30° $k = 0.052$, for 40° $k = 0.058$, and for 50° $k = 0.069$.†

The true value of the azimuth of Polaris at *any* time may be computed by the methods explained in books on field or geodetic astronomy.

415. Methods Compared. (*a*) *At elongation.* The proper time for sighting on the star is known without depending upon the watch. There is time to make two or more observations while Polaris is moving apparently neither east nor west. Little or no calculation is involved. With the same care the error is likely to be smaller than those made in the other two methods. The only disadvantage is that both elongations may occur at inconvenient times for observations, very late at night, or in the daytime. (See April 15, in table for time of elongations.) If instrumental errors are eliminated either by careful adjustment and leveling or by repetition (modified method, p. 357), the error should never exceed one minute of arc, and usually it should be less than 30″.

(*b*) *At culmination.* The star appears to be moving rapidly, and an error in time of two minutes is equivalent to about one minute of arc, hence the observation must be taken more quickly and at the proper moment. It is more difficult to eliminate errors of adjustment by two observations. If the time of culmination is found by sighting at Mizar, it is somewhat difficult to ascertain when this star is in the same vertical plane with Polaris, as the two are not in the field of the telescope at the same time. With reasonable care, however, the error of observation at culmination should not exceed one minute of arc.

(*c*) *At any time.* The method has all the disadvantages of the preceding method, and in addition it involves considerable calculation, correct data for which are not always at hand. The method is used only when the other two are impracticable.

416. Rough Determination of the True Meridian. If a transit is not at hand, any of the preceding methods, especially the first two, may be carried out roughly as follows: Suspend a long plumb-line, and on a level support place the rear-sight of a compass or anything having a small hole in it to look through. Shift the sight to the right or left to keep it in line with the star and the plumb-line until the time of elongation or culmination, as the case may be. The line of sight thus established may be marked by stakes, but of course it will be shorter and much less accurate than if established with a transit. With care, however, a meridian can be established in this way with sufficient accuracy for the purposes of compass surveying. For example, if the plumb-line is 50 ft. from the peep-sight and an error of, say, 0.2 ft. is made in sighting and setting the stake, the corresponding angular error will be about 14 minutes of arc. (See p. 105.)

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* See Johnson's *Theory and Practice of Surveying*, p. 569.

† Ibid., p. 567.

417. To Determine the Magnetic Declination. (1) Determine a true N. and S. meridian by one of the methods of Art. 414. (2) With vernier at zero, backsight along the meridian, and measure the angle between this line and a line found by turning the upper plate until the needle points to the zero of the compass-box. This angle is the magnetic declination.

Practical suggestions. (1) If there is a declination arc, be sure that it is set at zero. (2) The chief difficulty in determining magnetic declination lies in the lack of sensitiveness of the needle. It will be found that when the needle is almost at zero, the upper plate can often be turned several minutes by using the tangent screw, with little if any effect on the needle. One way to overcome this is to observe the reading of the vernier when the needle points to N., then unclamp the upper plate, turn it several degrees in any direction, the needle having been raised off its pivot, lower the needle, quickly set the vernier at its original reading and see if the needle settles at N. If not, repeat the process, changing the setting of the vernier a little each time until the needle does settle at zero. Even then it is often difficult to determine the declination within three or four minutes. As this, however, is closer than one can read the compass, this error is usually of little importance. (3) If the *azimuth* of Polaris has been determined, it is not necessary of course, to actually stake out a N. and S. line. The declination may be measured from the line fixed by the observation and allowance made for azimuth. For example, a line is established by observation at eastern elongation, and the azimuth of this line for the date of observation is 1° 34′. Backsighting along this line with vernier at zero, and then turning the upper plate until the needle points exactly at zero, the vernier reading is, say, 12° 10′. If the declination is *west* it must be 12° 10′ − 1° 34′ = 10° 36′. If the declination is *east* it must be 12° 10′ + 1° 34′ = 13° 44′

PART II

OFFICE WORK

INTRODUCTORY

OFFICE WORK may be divided into two parts, viz.: (1) *Computing* and (2) *Drawing.*

418. Computations are of two kinds: (1) Computations required for purposes of plotting, which include such work as *Calculation of Bearings* (Chapter XXX), *Latitudes and Departures* (Chapter XXXI), *Omitted Measurements* (Chapter XXXII), and other miscellaneous computations preparatory to plotting maps and profiles.

(2) Computations made for the purpose of obtaining data to be used in laying out work in the field, or for ascertaining desired information concerning the tract surveyed. Under this head may be classed such work as *Calculation of Areas* (Chapter XXXIII), *Parting off Land* (Chapter XXXIV), *Earthwork Computations* (Chapter XXXV), and miscellaneous work in computing dimensions and elevations.

For the most part office computations involve only the simplest principles of plane trigonometry and of geometry. Accuracy and facility in the use of logarithms is essential.

419. Drawing consists in *plotting* and in *finishing maps and profiles*, and, occasionally, in the graphic solution of problems.

(1) *Plotting* consists mainly in reversing on paper operations in the field, drawing instruments being used in place of field instruments, and measurements being laid off to a greatly reduced scale. The nature of this work is suggested by the following chapters: *Methods of Plotting Angles* (Chapter XXXVIII), *Methods of Plotting Traverses* (Chapter XXXIX), *Plotting Details* (Chapter XLI), and *Plotting Profiles* (Chapter XLIII). Many of the methods are analogous to field methods, the scale being used in place of the tape, and the protractor in place of the transit or compass.

(2) *Finishing Maps and Profiles* (Chapter XLII) consists in inking the pencil drawing in lettering the map, in putting on conventional signs, and in miscellaneous work such as drawing border-lines and meridian needles.

CHAPTER XXIX

OFFICE COMPUTATIONS

GENERAL DIRECTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In this chapter are given general directions and suggestions which apply to all kinds of office computations. The aim is to outline methods of avoiding mistakes and of economizing time.

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420. Checking Computations is recognized in practice as a very essential part of office work. No important result is allowed to stand until it has been checked. Each student, therefore, should learn to check his own work as a matter of course; otherwise he will find himself severely handicapped when he enters upon actual practice. Once he understands a method, he should find his own mistakes, and make sure of his own results, before submitting work to an instructor.

Remark. Frequently students may work together with profit when *studying methods*, but the habit of comparing results at every opportunity is a real weakness which is likely to cling to one long after graduation. It is true that in practice two men often work on the same problem, but unless they work independently any agreement in results is of little value as a check.

There are several general methods of checking computations, among which are: (1) Checking arithmetical work step by step, as, for example, checking multiplication by casting out nines (p. 366). (2) Checking results by known conditions, as, for example, checking the three computed values of the interior angles of a triangle by comparing their sum with 180°. (3) Checking a result by using a different method of computation, as, for example, finding the length of the hypothenuse of a right-angled triangle by trigonometry and then checking it by squaring the other two sides. (4) Checking a result by using different data, as, for example, checking the length of a diagonal of a quadrilateral by solving each of the two triangles of which it is a common side. Usually one or more of these methods of checking can be used, no matter what the nature of the computations may be.

(*a*) *Approximate checks* are of great value in making sure that no large mistake has been made. Computed areas may be checked approximately by means of the planimeter (p. 408). Latitudes and departures of a traverse which does not close may be checked roughly by plotting the traverse (p. 463). Computed lengths may be checked by scaling the map. Accurate computations may be checked roughly by the use of the slide-rule. Thus many approximate methods are constantly used to check results which have been obtained by more accurate methods.

421. Systematic Methods. The main object of systematic methods in office work is to economize time. Checks are used to detect mistakes, systematic methods to avoid them. The remarks in Art. 15, p. 8, are especially true of office computations.

Remark. It is sometimes difficult to convince students that systematic methods actually *shorten* work. In the long run it will take less time to avoid mistakes than to correct them, Why not take a little trouble to avoid much trouble?

The following suggestions are offered for systematizing office computations:

(1) *A "separate-leaf" note-book* with pages about 8″×10½″ is recommended for class-work. The computations for each exercise can be handed in, checked, returned, arranged in logical order in the note-book, and preserved for future reference. Avoid the use of loose scraps of paper for computations.

(2) *Arrangement.* Adopt some economical and systematic arrangement. If the same kind of work is always arranged in the same way, blunders and omissions often become self-evident. It is usually advantageous to arrange work in columns. (See pp. 393 and 425.) The head of each column, each final result, and all other important quantities should be labeled so that every step in the computations may be followed by simply glancing through the work. At the head of the page the problems should be concisely stated, and the data given.

(3) *Order of procedure.* Having brought together all the necessary data, *check them* before beginning computations. Too frequently mistakes are made in copying data from field notes. Aim to perform at one time all operations that are alike. (See

p. 374.) Adhere to the same order of procedure for similar problems, so that much of the work will become automatic, and the chances of error will be diminished.

422. Speed in computing may be gained in several ways, viz.: (1) By adopting economic methods of procedure; (2) by using short cuts in arithmetical work; (3) by eliminating unnecessary steps and worthless refinements; (4) by the use of tables; (5) by the use of graphic methods; (6) by the use of mechanical methods.

423. Economic Methods of Procedure consist largely in grouping like operations. Frequently the entire work in a problem can be blocked out on paper in some convenient form before any numerical work is begun, so that afterward the attention may be concentrated upon the mechanical work of computation (see p. 399). This is especially true of logarithmic computations. The less the mind is compelled to turn from one thing to another the more quickly and accurately it works.

424. Short Cuts in Arithmetical Work. There are a few simple methods of shortening arithmetical work in common use that are of great value in computing. If the student is not already familiar with those given in this article, he can easily learn them, and, once he becomes accustomed to their use, he will be surprised at the amount of time they save.

(*a*) MENTAL MULTIPLICATION. The product of composite numbers may be obtained mentally by resolving them into factors and finding the product of these factors.

(1) 32×28=16×8×7=896. (2) 32 cu. yds.×27=16×6×9=864 cu. ft.
When the multiplier is a factor of 100 multiply by 100 and divide by the proper quantity:
(3) 68×25=6800÷4=1700 (4) 98×50=9800÷2=4900
(5) 76×75=3800+1900=5700 (6) 41×150=4100+2050=6150.
Mental division is the reverse of the above.
(7) 864 cu. ft.÷27=864 divided by 9 and again by 3=32 cu. yds.

(*b*) LONG MULTIPLICATION can be shortened in many cases by a similar method. It is surprising how many times two adjacent figures in the multiplier form a number which is an even multiple of another figure in the multiplier.

(1)

$$\begin{array}{r} 2875\\ 273\\ \hline 8625\\ 77625\\ \hline 784875 \end{array}$$

(2)

$$\begin{array}{lr} \text{Circum.} = & 2468\\ & 0.3183\\ \hline & 7404\\ & 44424\\ & 7404\\ \hline \text{Diam.} = & 785.5644 \end{array}$$

Illustration. In the first illustration 8625 is multiplied by 9, since 27 = 9×3. In the second illustration multiply first by the left-hand 3, and then 7404 by 6, since 18 = 6×3.

(3) Multiply 265894×497328, multiplying by only 4 digits instead of 6. Suggestion: 32 = 4×8 and 49 = 7×7.

(*c*) LONG DIVISION. There is little gained in applying the corresponding process in division except when the divisor can be factored into two divisors, each of which does not exceed 12.

Illustration. 48926 ÷ 63. The work as shown requires 16 figures, while long division by the regular method would require at least 29.

```
7|48926.
9|6989.4
  776.6
```

(*d*) ABRIDGED MULTIPLICATION may be used when the product is required only to a given number of places of figures. The method of procedure is as follows: (1) Reverse the order of the figures of the multiplier, writing them directly below those of the multiplicand. (2) Multiply in the usual way, except that in multiplying by any figure of the multiplier begin with the one in the multiplicand directly above it, mentally adding anything which should be carried from the multiplication of the preceding figure of the multiplicand by this figure of the multiplier; the result is the first right-hand figure of the corresponding partial product. The partial products are written so that their right-hand figures are in the same vertical column. The decimal point is determined by inspection.

Illustration. Let it be required to multiply 140.66 by 52.13 to one decimal place. The long method of multiplication and the short method are given side by side.

```
      140.66            140.66
       52.13             31.25
   ---------            ------
       42198             70330
      14066               2813
     28132                 141
    70330                   42
   ---------            ------
   7332.6058            7332.6
```

Notice that in multiplying by 1 the result was put down as 141 instead of 140. This was because the amount to carry (0.6) was nearer 1 than 0.

(*e*) *Note.* If a result is required to *n* places of figures, it is usually best to write the first or right-hand figure of the multiplier under the *n*+1 place of the multiplicand, i.e., carry the computation one more place than required. This is illustrated below, where the result was required to four places of figures. (Or two decimal places.)

```
      48.6678        48.6678        48.6678
       1.0623        3260.1         3260.1
   ----------        ------         ------
      1460034        48668          4867
      973356          2920           292
    2920068             97            10
   486678               14             1
   ----------        ------         ------
   5169980394        51.699         51.70
```

The right-hand multiplication is accurate enough for most purposes, but by carrying the work to five places, as in the middle example, the result is exact to four places. (In this case it happens to be exact to five places.)

(*f*) *Note.* Always begin by multiplying that figure in the multiplicand which stands in the first place to the right of the multiplier. Before carrying over the result, change it to the single digit which most nearly expresses it in the next left-hand place. For example, if the product is less than 5 there is nothing to carry; if it is 5 or more but less than 15 there is one to carry; if it is 15 or more but less than 25 there is two to carry, and so on. Thus in the middle example shown above when multiplying by 6 the process is 6×6=36 or nearly 4 and (6×6)+4=40, giving a 0 for the first figure. In the right-hand example in multiplying by 2 the process is 2×8=16 or nearly 2 and (2×4)+2=10.

(*g*) ABRIDGED DIVISION consists in deleting a figure of the divisor in each partial division after the first, instead of bringing down the next figure in the dividend.

3.1416)41.689348(13.27	3.1416)41.689348(13.27
31416	31416
10273	102733
9425	94248
848	84854
628	62832
220	220228
220	219912
	316

Illustration. Notice that in multiplying the divisor after deleting, the figure deleted is multiplied mentally and the nearest digit carried over; thus in multiplying by 3 begin with 6, the figure deleted, then 3×6=18=2 (nearly) to carry, and (3×1)+2=5, the first digit in 9425. Likewise, in multiplying by 7, 7×4=28=3 (nearly) and (7×1)+3=0, the first digit in 220.

Remark. If a quotient is desired to n places of figures, it is better in some cases to obtain $n \div 2$ or one half of the required figures before beginning to delete.

(*h*) RULE FOR CHECKING MULTIPLICATION. Cast out nines from (1) the multiplicand, (2) the multiplier, and (3) the product. The result in (3) should equal the product of the results of (1) and (2).

Methods of casting out nines. Casting out nines from any number is equivalent to subtracting from that number the nearest multiple of nine. This may be accomplished by subtracting from the *sum* of all the digits in the number the nearest multiple of nine, but it is somewhat easier to cross out first all 9's and all figures whose sum is 9 or a multiple of 9, and then to add the remaining figures. For example, let 4 867 428 be the given number; first cross out 4, 8, and 6, also 2 and 7, thus leaving 4 and 8; then 4+8=12 and 12−9=3 (or what amounts to the same thing, 1+2=3). The same result is obtained by adding the digits, thus: 4+8+6+7+4+2+8=39 and 39−36=3 (or 3+9=12, and 1+2=3). Another method is to begin at one end to add the digits, but to keep casting out nines as the addition progresses, thus: 4+8+6=0, and 0+7+4+2=13=1+3=4, and 4+8=12=1+2=3. Having once become accustomed to casting out nines the method affords a very simple and rapid check for *multiplication*, as illustrated below. (See explanation top of next page.)

$$\begin{array}{rrl}
\cancel{2}8\cancel{7}5 & = 4 & \\
\cancel{2}\cancel{7}3 & = \underline{3} & \\
\hline
\cancel{7}\cancel{8}\cancel{4}\cancel{8}75 & = 12 = 12 &
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{rr}
2\cancel{4}\cancel{6}\cancel{8} & = 2 \\
3\cancel{1}\cancel{8}3 & = \underline{6} \\
\hline
78\cancel{5}\cancel{5}6\cancel{4}\cancel{4} & = 21 = 12 \\
 & 3 = 3
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rr}
14066 & = 8 \\
\cancel{5}2\cancel{1}\cancel{3} & = \underline{2} \\
\hline
\cancel{7}3\cancel{3}\cancel{2}\cancel{6}058 & = 16 = 16
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{rr}
\cancel{4}\cancel{8}\cancel{6}678 & = 3 \\
10\cancel{6}2\cancel{3} & = \underline{3} \\
\hline
\cancel{5}\cancel{1}\cancel{6}\cancel{9}\cancel{9}\cancel{8}0\cancel{3}\cancel{9}\cancel{4} & = 0 = 9
\end{array}$$

Illustration. Taking the multiplicands, multipliers, and products from pages 364 and 365, the nines may be cast out as indicated above. Notice that 7848 = 27 = 0 in the first illustration. In the number 5 169 980 394, the three 9's were first crossed out, then 6 and 3, then 8 and 1, leaving 5 and 4 equal to 0. In this way by crossing out from inspection two or more figures whose sum is 9 or 18 or 27, the work becomes very simple.

Remark. Of course this method is not an absolute check, for it will happen occasionally that two mistakes are made which offset each other For example, one figure in the product may be 1 too large and another 1 too small; the sum would check though the product would be wrong.

If the remainder in either factor is 0, it is necessary, not to cast out nines from the other factor, but simply to note whether the remainder of the product is 0. Why?

(*i*) RULE FOR CHECKING DIVISION. Cast out 9's from (1) the dividend, (2) the divisor, (3) the quotient, and (4) the remainder if there is one. Multiply the result in (2) by the result in (3) and add the result in (4). This final result should equal the result in (1). This process is, of course, the reverse of the preceding.

Illustration. Take the dividend, divisor, quotient, and remainder from p. 366:

Dividend,	41.689348 = 7	
Divisor,	3.1416	= 6
Quotient,	13.27	= $\underline{4}$
Remainder,	316 = 1 + 24 = 7 (check)	

(*j*) TO SQUARE A SMALL NUMBER. (1) Add to or subtract from the given number a quantity such that the result will be a multiple of ten. (2) Subtract from or add to the number the same quantity. (3) Multiply the result in (1) by the result in (2), and add the square of the quantity subtracted or added in (1) and (2).

$84^2 = 80 \times 88 + 16 = 7056$ $\qquad$ $48^2 = 50 \times 46 + 4 = 2304$

$(8\tfrac{1}{2})^2 = 8 \times 9 + (\tfrac{1}{2})^2 = 72\tfrac{1}{4}$ $\qquad$ $(8\tfrac{1}{4})^2 = 8 \times 8\tfrac{1}{2} + (\tfrac{1}{4})^2 = 68\tfrac{1}{16}$

The above rule is particularly easy of application in squaring multiples of 5.

$(25)^2 = 20 \times 30 + 25 = 625$ $\qquad$ $(45)^2 = 40 \times 50 + 25 = 2025$

(*k*) SQUARE ROOT OF SMALL NUMBERS. The following approximate method usually gives results which are accurate enough for most purposes: Divide the given number by that number whose square is nearest the given number and find the arithmetical mean of the quotient and the divisor. Expressed algebraically, let N = the given number, S = the nearest square, and $r = \sqrt{S}$.

$$\sqrt{N} = \left(\frac{N}{r} + r\right) \div 2$$

$$\sqrt{84} = \left(\frac{84}{9} + 9\right) \div 2 = (9.33 + 9) \div 2 = 9.17 \text{ (9.1652 correct)}$$

$$\sqrt{47} = \left(\frac{47}{7} + 7\right) \div 2 = (6.71 + 7) \div 2 = 6.86 \text{ (6.8557 correct)}$$

(*l*) SQUARE ROOT OF LARGE NUMBERS may be found in the same way provided a table of squares is also used. The above formula may be written in a more convenient form when applied to large numbers.

$$\sqrt{N} = r + [(N - S) \div (2 \times r)]$$

$$\sqrt{32200} = 179 + [(32200 - 32041) \div (2 \times 179)] = 179.444 \text{ (179.44358 correct)}$$

$$\sqrt{175440} = 419 + [(175440 - 175561) \div (2 \times 419)] = 418.856 \text{ (418.85558 correct)}$$

The value of S, the nearest square, is taken from a table of squares. Not only is this method very much shorter than the ordinary process of extracting a square root, but results are usually correct to three and often to four decimal places. Deleting the divisor (see p. 366) shortens the process still more.

(*m*) CHECKING BY SECOND DIFFERENCES. This method is useful in a variety of problems involving equations of the second degree. It is especially useful in checking ordinates, taken at *equal* intervals, to horizontal or vertical curves. In this case the method consists simply in finding the "first differences" between successive ordinates, and then finding the "second differences" between the "first differences"; the "second differences" should be equal. Due regard should be paid to algebraic signs.

Illustration. Let it be required to check the elevation given on page 292 for a vertical curve. The work below shows that the "second differences" *are equal,* and hence the elevations are probably correct.

Elevations	First Differences	Second Differences
98.6000		
	+.4125	
98.1875		+1750
	+.2375	
97.9500		+1750
	+.0625	
97.8875		+1750
	−.1125	
98.0000		+1750
	−.2875	
98.2875		+1750
	−.4625	
98.7500		+1750
	−.6375	
99.3875		+1750
	−.8125	
100.2000		

(*n*) ADDITIONAL ARITHMETICAL CHECKS. *Addition.* The usual check is to add both up and down the columns. Another check is to go over the work a second time, adding in the carried figures after the others, instead of before, or *vice versa.*

Subtraction. Add the subtrahend and the remainder, but cover up the minuend while doing so.

Multiplication. In place of the check afforded by casting out 9's a similar check, more laborious but more reliable, is that by excess of 11's. Thus in the examples on p. 367:

2875÷11 = 261+ remainder of 4
273÷11 = 24+ " " 9

784875÷11 = 71352+ " " 3
9×4=36 and 36÷11=3+ " " 3 (check)
2468÷11 = 224+ remainder of 4
3183÷11 = 289+ " " 4

7855644÷11 = 714149+ " " 5
4×4=16 and 16÷11=1+ " " 5 (check)

When a product is not carried to the full number of places, as in abridged multiplication, neither the check by excess of 9's nor that by excess of 11's can be used. In such a case a good check is to reverse the position of the multiplier and multiplicand.

Division. Instead of casting out 9's a check by excess of 11's may be used. When the work has not been carried to the full number of places, as in abridged division, about the only check is to multiply divisor and quotient together and add in the remainder.

425. Eliminating Worthless Refinements consists chiefly in avoiding the use of unnecessary figures. Data may be given to more places of figures than there is any need of, or time may be wasted in trying to attain a higher degree of precision than the data will warrant. The aim in this article is to show that in all calculations it is desirable to make a critical inspection of the numbers which enter into every computation for the purpose of rejecting figures which cannot affect the accuracy of the final results. Not only is it a waste of time to use an unnecessary number of figures in computations, but the results thus obtained are misleading, for they appear to be more accurate than they really are. Worthless figures may be avoided by an intelligent use of the following facts: (1) Numbers expressing measurements cannot be exact, for the true value of a single measurement is never known. (2) A result cannot be more accurate than the data from which it is obtained, no matter how many places of figures are used in each step of the calculation. (3) In dealing with inexact numbers *consistent* accuracy should be the aim instead of *absolute* accuracy, and consistent accuracy is not gained by carrying all numbers to the same number of decimal places regardless of how many figures each number contains.

(*a*) *Illustration.* The length of one line measured to the nearest *foot* is 3216 ft.; a second line measured to the nearest *tenth* is 321.6 ft.; a third line measured to the nearest *hundredth* is 32.16 ft.; a fourth line measured to the nearest *thousandth* is 3.216 ft. The last figure in each number is *uncertain*, while the first three are *certain*, and the *relative precision* of each measurement is $\frac{5}{32160} = \frac{1}{6432}$. The position of the decimal point has nothing to do with the *relative precision* of a measurement, and the mistaken idea that the number of decimal places to which a result is carried indicates the accuracy of that result is responsible for a great deal of stupid and unnecessary labor.

(*b*) *The accuracy to be attained* in any computation is determined by the *number* of certain figures in the data. In order to determine the number of certain figures in any measurement some approximate expression of its accuracy must be obtained. For example, 5600 ft. may contain one, two, or three certain figures according to whether the measurement was made to the nearest 100 ft., to the nearest 10 ft., or to the nearest foot.

(*c*) *Note.* In office computations it frequently happens that one man works from field notes taken by others. In this case, unless it is evident that a measurement has been given to too many places, it may be assumed, as a rule, that each number contains but one doubtful figure. In the case of a decimal fraction the zeros used merely to indicate the position of the decimal point are not counted as certain figures. Thus, for example, 0.00043 contains only one certain figure; 0.000430 may contain two, since the cipher at the end indicates that the measurement was carried to one more place. A final zero used for this purpose should never be omitted, for it may be the only doubtful figure.

(*d*) *Remark.* The number of *significant figures* in any number representing a measurement is always one greater than the number of *certain figures; the last significant* figure is the first uncertain figure. It must not be assumed that because a figure is uncertain it has no significance. Its uncertainty may be very small, hence it has significance, but there can be no advantage gained in writing a number beyond the *second* doubtful figure.

(*e*) *The effect of uncertain figures* in the data upon the results of computations may be illustrated as follows: Four measurements are: 6843.2 ft., 253 ft., 282.42 ft., and 1200 ft. Each may be assumed to contain only one uncertain figure except the distance 1200 ft., which was measured to the nearest hundred feet and therefore contains three uncertain figures. It is required to add the four numbers, and also to find the product of the first two. Let the uncertain figures be indicated throughout the work by smaller type.

$$\begin{array}{r} 6843.2 \\ 253. \\ 282.42 \\ 1200 \\ \hline 8578.62 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 6843.2 \\ 253 \\ \hline 205296 \\ 342160 \\ 136864 \\ \hline 1731329.6 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 684 \\ 25 \\ 28 \\ 120 \\ \hline 8570 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 6843.2 \\ 352 \\ \hline 1369 \\ 342 \\ 20 \\ \hline 1731000 \end{array}$$

Since the uncertain figures in the data render so many figures worthless in the sum and product, the results 8570 and 1 731 000, obtained by abridged methods, are better than 8578.62 and 1 731 329.6, since the latter appear to be much more accurate than they really are. It is seldom necessary to give a final result beyond the first doubtful figure except when it is desired to show that the uncertainty of that figure is small. Thus, ordinarily, the preceding results may be written 8600 ft. and 1 730 000 sq. ft.

Not only is it misleading to retain more than two uncertain figures in any result, but it is a reflection upon the intelligence of the computer.

The preceding examples illustrate two general propositions:

I. *In addition or subtraction the result cannot be accurate beyond the first doubtful place in any of the numbers added or subtracted.*

II. *In multiplication or division the relative accuracy of the product or quotient cannot exceed that of the factor whose relative accuracy is least.*

(*f*) *Note.* The first of these propositions is self-evident and the second is easily proved. Let a and b be the errors of two numbers A and B. Then $\frac{a}{A}$ is the relative accuracy of A and $\frac{b}{B}$ of B. $(A + a) \times (B + b) = AB + Ba +$

$Ab+ab$. Dropping the very small quantity ab the error of this product is $Ba+Ab$ and the relative accuracy of the product is $\frac{Ba+Ab}{AB}=\frac{a}{A}+\frac{b}{B}$. Hence the relative accuracy of a product is practically equal to the sum of the relative (or fractional) accuracies of the factors, and hence less than either.

It is unwise to adopt hard and fast rules in shortening computations, but by following intelligently the suggestions given below a great deal of time may be saved without sacrificing accuracy in the results.

(*g*) SUGGESTIONS FOR SHORTENING COMPUTATIONS. ***Multiplication.*** (1) Before beginning a multiplication ascertain by inspection which of the factors contains the smallest number of certain figures. Call this the *limiting* factor. (2) Use the abridged method. Reverse the limiting factor for a multiplier, count off from left to right one more place in the multiplicand than there are certain places in the multiplier, and begin under this place to write the multiplier backward from right to left. *The number of certain figures in the product can never exceed the number of certain figures in the limiting number by more than one; frequently the number of certain figures in both will be the same.*

Remark. This method gives the result exactly to one uncertain place, and the error in the second uncertain place, if there is any, will rarely exceed one unit. See Art. 424 (*e*), p. 365. By observing what figures are affected by the uncertain figure in the multiplier the number of uncertain figures in the product will become evident. (See abridged multiplication, p. 371.)

Addition and subtraction. (1) The limiting number will be the one whose first uncertain figure is farthest to the left. (2) In writing down the quantities omit all figures in each number beyond the second doubtful place of the limiting number. (See abridged addition, p. 371.)

Division. Use the abridged method on p. 366, and determine by inspection the figures rendered uncertain in the divisor.

General suggestions. (1) Retain throughout the different steps of a calculation enough places of figures to correspond to two uncertain figures in the result in order that the first uncertain figure may be free from accumulated rejection errors. (2) In dropping figures, add 1 to the last figure retained when the first left-hand rejected figure is greater than 5; when it is less than 5 leave the last figure unchanged. If the rejected figure is 5, add 1 to the last figure retained if this will make it even, otherwise leave it unchanged.

(*h*) APPLICATION OF RULES. We usually know before beginning a calculation what degree of precision is required in a result, or else we desire to compute a result as accurately as the data will permit. In either case we may be guided by the rules just given. In the following illustrations of the applications of the rules it is understood, unless otherwise stated, that the last digit in a number is the only uncertain figure.

Illustration I. The lengths of two sides of a rectangular lot are given as 626.8 ft. and 73.2 ft. What is its area? There cannot be more than two certain figures in the result, since there are only two in 73.2. Hence reverse 732, and writing the 7 under the *third* figure in 626.8 obtain the result by abridged multiplication = 45 880; since the last three figures are uncertain this result may be written 45 900 sq. ft. By direct multiplication 626.8 × 73.2 = 45 881.76, the last five figures of which are uncertain, hence the result is no more accurate than before.

Illustration II. The lengths in the above illustration are given as 626.834 ft. and 73.253 ft. The data will bear inspection. Was allowance made in chaining for temperature and other sources of error? (p. 43). If not, there cannot be more than three certain figures in either measurement. Assuming this to be true, 626.8 × 73.25 = 45 912 (by abridged multiplication), or 45 910 sq. ft. Taking the measurements as given, by direct multiplication 626.834 × 73.253 = 45 917.471002; only four figures of this result can be certain, hence it may be written 45 917 sq. ft., with the last figure uncertain. This is a good illustration of the folly of carrying computations to an excessive number of places.

Illustration III. The radius of a circle is given as 21.84, what is the circumference? There can be only three certain figures in the answer, hence use 2π to four places. By abridged multiplication 6.283 × 21.84 = 137.22 ft., with the last two figures uncertain. Using π to one more place, 2 × 3.1416 × 21.84 = 137.225088 (by direct multiplication), a result with only three certain figures and no more accurate than before.

Illustration IV. The base of a right-angled triangle is given in the field notes as 428.63 ft. and the adjacent angle is 44° 24′, measured to the nearest minute. What is the length of the perpendicular side? The natural tangent for 44° 24′ is 0.97927 and for 44° 25′ it is 0.97984. Since the maximum error in the angle may be as large as 30″ the natural tangent may vary nearly 3 in the fourth place, and there can be only three certain figures. Hence drop the last figure in 428.63 and by abridged multiplication 428.6 × 0.9793 = 419.72, or since there are but three certain figures the result is 419.7. If the length is taken as it stands and a five-place tangent is used, the result by direct multiplication is 428.63 × 0.97927 = 419.7445001 ft., only three figures of which are certain, hence the result is 419.7, the same as before.

Illustration V. Suppose in the above illustration that the angle was measured to the nearest 10″. The variation in the tangent would be only $\frac{1}{6}$ × .00057 or .00009, hence the first four figures are certain and five places may be retained in the length and in the tangent or, by abridged multiplication, 428.63 × .97927 = 419.744, four figures of which are certain, hence the result is 419.74.

Illustration VI. Suppose in the above illustration that the base, measured to the nearest foot, is 428 ft. There can be only two certain figures in the result, hence use only three figures in the tangent. By abridged multiplication 428 × .979 = 419.0 ft.

(*i*) TRIGONOMETRIC TABLES. The following general rules may be given for simple computations such as ordinarily arise in office work. They hold good for logarithmic tables as well as for tables of natural functions.

For two certain figures in the result use three-place tables, for three certain figures use four-place tables, for four certain figures use five-place tables. In computations involving several steps it may be necessary to use tables to one more place in each case.

If angles are given to the nearest minute use four-place tables; if angles are known to be in error less than 30″ use five-place tables.

(*j*) *Remark.* Six-place tables are seldom needed in office computations except for measurements of the highest precision, such as those which are made in accurate triangulation. In direct logarithmic multiplication and division with 4-, 5-, and 6-place tables the work is about as 2 : 3 : 4, i.e., the work is doubled by using six-place tables instead of four.

426. Logarithmic Computations. The following suggestions are intended to supplement the directions commonly given for the use of logarithmic tables.

(1) A large proportion of the time required for the use of tables is spent in merely turning leaves, a fact not always appreciated. Make it a rule, therefore, when the tables are open at a given page to look up all that is to be taken from that page before turning to another. In order to do this it will be necessary, at the beginning of a calculation, to prepare a form or schedule in which a place is left for each logarithm, and for the result of each step throughout the computation. The undivided attention can then be given to looking up the logarithms, thus saving time and diminishing the chances of error.

Illustration. On page 393 the bearing, the length, and the letters of each given line were entered in the first column, and this column was entirely completed before the logarithmic tables were used at all. (See also the form for triangulation computations, p. 399.)

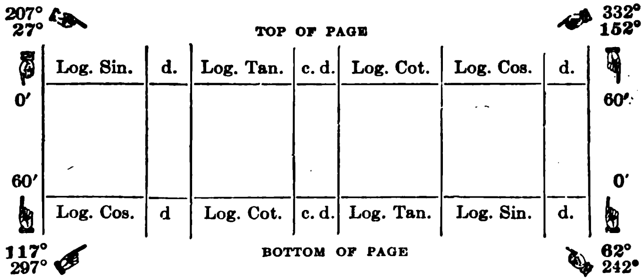
(2) Mistakes are less likely to occur if like operations are always carried out in the same way. For example, in *interpolation,* it is well to work always from the next smaller towards the next larger minute, regardless of whether this takes one up or down the page. Thus if the sine of 42° 20′ 20″ is desired, add $\frac{1}{3}$ the difference in the table to the sine of 42° 20′ rather than subtract $\frac{2}{3}$ the difference from the sine of 42° 21′, though the latter method would be correct. Likewise if the cosine of 64° 10′ 15″ is desired, subtract $\frac{1}{4}$ the difference in the tables from the cosine of 64° 10′ rather than add $\frac{3}{4}$ the difference to the cosine of 64° 11′. Of course one must always be careful to *observe whether* the tabular values of functions are increasing

or decreasing, as one glances from the next lower to the next higher minute, for this will determine whether the proportional difference is to be added or subtracted.

Remark. Form the habit of roughly checking a quantity obtained by interpolation. Thus, for example, if ¼ the tabular difference has been added to one tabular value, see if the result, as nearly as can be estimated, is ¾ the tabular difference from the next tabular value. A quick inspection of this sort is likely to reveal any serious blunder that has been made in interpolating.

Some tables give proportional parts, but if they are not given, aim to perform interpolation *mentally* without setting down figures.

(3) When an angle is more than 90° there is danger not only of ignoring the algebraic sign of a function, but of using the wrong heading or the wrong column of minutes. In some tables the degrees are indicated from 0° to 180° by giving four different values on each page, one in each corner. In that case follow the simple rule *to use the line of headings and the column of minutes which are nearest to the degree number used.*



It will pay to go through a new set of tables and to draw indexes or arrows on each page, as shown above. This simple device will often save mistakes by reminding one of the proper minute column and line of headings to use. If many calculations are to be made with angles greater than 180°, additional numbers may be marked on each page of the tables, e.g., the numbers 207°, 332°, 242°, and 297°, shown above.

(4) Another useful device is to letter a narrow strip of cardboard with headings at the top and bottom, as shown above, to fit the tables used, and to slide this strip up or down in taking quantities from the tables.

(5) When, as is often the case in trigonometric computations, any one of several methods may be used, the following suggestions will help to decide which to choose.

(*a*) *An angle is best determined from a function which changes rapidly, i.e., with large tabular differences.*

(*b*) *A quantity to be found from a given angle is best determined by means of a function which changes slowly.*

(*c*) *Tangents and cotangents vary more rapidly than sines and cosines, hence use the former to determine angles and the latter to determine lengths.*

Remark. The more poorly proportioned a triangle the more important these rules become.

Illustration. Let the three sides of a right-angled triangle be 20.00 ft., 140.00 ft., and 141.42 ft. respectively. Required the angles A and B. Each can be found in four ways:

$$\tan A = \cot B = \frac{20}{140} = 0.14286 = 8^\circ\ 7\frac{24'}{29} = 8^\circ\ 7'.82+$$

$$\tan B = \cot A = \frac{140}{20} = 7.00000 = 81^\circ\ 52\frac{282'}{1456} = 81^\circ\ 52'.19+$$

$$\sin A = \cos B = \frac{20}{141.42} = 0.14142 = 8^\circ\ 7\frac{23'}{29} = 8^\circ\ 7'.79+$$

$$\sin B = \cos A = \frac{140}{141.42} = 0.98996 = 81^\circ\ 52\frac{2'}{4} = 81^\circ\ 52'.5$$

The denominator in each fraction of a minute is the tabular difference for the corresponding function. This is largest for *tan B* or *cot A*, i.e., the function is changing about 0.01456 per minute of arc, and hence this is the most accurate determination of A or B. The least accurate result, and one of comparatively little value, is that obtained from sin B or cos A, the tabular difference being only 4 for one minute of arc. Of course so poorly proportioned a triangle should be avoided in practice when great accuracy is desired.

(6) The student will find it a great help to memorize a few logarithms, especially those of the whole numbers up to ten, and of those constants most frequently used. Thus, for example, he can learn, in a few minutes, the logarithms of 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9, then he will know the logarithms of their squares, and of simple multiples, and hence the logarithms of at least a third of the numbers from 1 to 100 will be at his command.

(7) *Finally,* the student is urged to use logarithms in preference to arithmetical calculations whenever the work involves many figures. He must overcome the antipathy to the use of logarithms which seems prevalent among students, and recognize that in long multiplications, in long divisions, in squaring or cubing numbers, and in extracting square or cube roots a table of logarithms is a great labor-saving device.

427. Useful Tables. Among the tables most useful in office computations in addition to the tables of natural functions and the logarithmic tables are the following: Stadia reduction tables, tables of latitudes and departures (see p. 388), multiplication tables, such as those of Crelle, which give the products of three figures by three figures to 999×999, tables of squares and cubes, decimals of a foot for each $\frac{1}{16}$ of an inch, earthwork tables, table of chords, and tables giving squares of feet and inches to each $\frac{1}{16}$ of an inch up to 100 feet.

Many simple tables may be prepared for special use. For instance, any arithmetical calculations which occur again and again may be performed once for all and the results tabulated. Thus, for example, such constants as 43 560 (sq. ft. per acre), 27 (cu. ft. per cu. yd.), and $\pi = 3.1416$ may be multiplied by each digit from 2 to 9 once for all, thus saving time and avoiding errors in subsequent multiplications or divisions in which these quantities are involved.

428. Graphic Methods often give satisfactory results in less time than they could be obtained by computation. For example, horizontal curves may be plotted and scaled (see p. 208), gradients and vertical curves may be determined in the same way (p. 289), areas may be checked by scaling distances and by means of ruled squares (p. 408), contour points may be interpolated graphically (p. 433 and p. 498).

Diagrams may be constructed to be used in place of tables, such, for example, as those for reducing stadia readings (p. 482), for determining latitudes and departures (p. 388), and for estimating quantities in earthwork.

Remark. Excellent devices for shortening office work appear in the engineering papers from time to time, either in the form of diagrams or tables. When engaged in a special line of work, be on the alert to devise similar diagrams or tables. By exercising a little ingenuity a great deal of drudgery may be saved.

429. Mechanical Methods. Among the most common mechanical devices for supplementing office computations are the slide-rule, the planimeter (p. 408), the pantograph (p. 443), the protractor, and the computing machine. There are several forms of slide-rules designed for special purposes, such, for example, as the stadia slide-rule for reducing stadia readings. There are also various forms of planimeters, pantographs, and computing machines.

CHAPTER XXX

CALCULATION OF BEARINGS

If the bearing of any line of a survey is known and the angle which that line makes with a second line is also known, the bearing of the second line can be calculated. The method of calculation is given in this chapter.

430. Algebraic Signs of Bearings and Angles. For convenience in computation all angles measured to the *right*, or *clockwise*, are plus; to the *left*, or *counter-clockwise*, minus. This applies not only to angles measured in the field *but also to angles of bearing*. Thus N.E. and S.W. bearings are *plus* and N.W. and S.E. bearings are *minus*.

431. The Angular Distance. If through one end of any line a north and south line is established, four angles are formed, two of which are measured from N. (one clockwise and one counter-clockwise) and the other two from S. (one clockwise and one counter-clockwise). Each of these angles may be called the *angular distance* of the given line. In giving the angular distance of any line, it is necessary, therefore, to state whether it is *plus* or *minus* and whether it is measured from N. or from S.

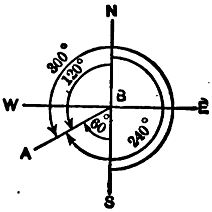


Fig. 431.

Illustration. The bearing of a line, *BA*, is S. 60° W. The four angular distances are:
(1) 240° *plus* from N.
(2) 120° *minus* from N.
(3) 60° *plus* from S.
(4) 300° *minus* from S.

Note. Notice that when *any* angular distance is 90° or *less*, it is identical with *bearing*.

432. To Convert Angular Distance into Bearing. (1) Notice whether the angular distance is measured from N. or from S. and whether clockwise or counter-clockwise. (2) Imagine the angle turned off from N. or from S. as the case may be and from the number of quadrants passed over, determine the *quadrant* of bearing (i.e., whether it is N.E., S.E., S.W., or N.W.), and then the *angle* of bearing.

(*a*) *Illustration.* The angular distance of a line from N. is 160° *plus.* Since this is more than 90° clockwise from N., but less than 180°, the line must be in the S.E. quadrant, 20° from S., i.e., the bearing is S. 20° E.

(*b*) *Illustration.* The angular distance of a line from S. is 220° *minus.* Since this is more than 180° counter-clockwise from S., but less than 270°, the line must be in the N.W. quadrant, 40° from N., i.e., the bearing is N. 40° W.

(*c*) *Illustration.* The angular distance of a line from N. is 280° *plus.* This is more than 270° (or three quadrants) clockwise from N., hence the line is in the N.W. quadrant, i.e., bearing is N. 80° W.

Note. It is important that the student should be able to convert angular distance into bearing or *vice versa* without puzzling over it, and without relying upon rules. Form a clear mental picture of the four quadrants of bearing, the starting-point N. or S. as the case may be, the direction plus or minus, the number of quadrants passed over, and the final location of the line. The mental process is a simple one, and once the idea is grasped, it ceases to be a matter of memory. Practice on the following illustration, checking the columns of bearings until sure of the method.

ANG. DIST.	BEARING	ANG. DIST.	BEARING
N. 60°+	N. 60° E.	S. 20°+	S. 20° W.
N. 170°+	S. 10° E.	S. 130°+	N. 50° W.
N. 80°−	N. 80° W.	S. 280°−	S. 80° W.
N. 260°+	S. 80° W.	N. 310°+	N. 50° W.
N. 300°−	N. 60° E.	S. 260°+	N. 80° E.

(*d*) *To convert azimuth into bearing.* This is simply a special case of the method just explained, for the *azimuth* of a line is the same as its *angular* distance measured *plus* from N.

433. Calculating Bearings. The bearing of one line is known, the angle which that line makes with a second line is also known, required the bearing of the second line.

(1) *Set down the given BEARING followed by the corresponding sign* (Art. 430).

Note. Every line has two bearings (Art. 155, p. 112). Be sure to use the one corresponding to that end of the line at which the given angle was measured,—change the given letters if necessary. See illustration at the end of this article.

(2) *Set down the given ANGLE followed by the corresponding sign* (Art. 430).

(3) *Add* (1) *and* (2) *ALGEBRAICALLY; put the first letter of the given bearing in front of the result and the proper algebraic sign after it.*

Note. The result in (3) is an *angular distance;* the letter in front tells whether it is measured from N. or from S., and the sign gives the direction,—clockwise if plus, counter-clockwise if minus.

(4) *Convert the angular distance in* (3) *into bearing* (Art. 432).

(*a*) *Illustration.* The bearing of a line *BA* is N. 60° E.; angle *ABC* = 80° clockwise; required the bearing of *BC*.

BA = N. 60° E. +
ABC = 80° +
Ang. Dist. of *BC* = N. 140° +
Bearing of *BC* = S. 40° E.

The student should draw a figure showing the four compass-points and the lines *AB* and *BC*.

(*b*) *Illustration.* The bearing of a line *BA* is N. 60° W.; angle *ABC* = 80° clockwise; required the bearing of *BC*.

BA = N. 60° W. −
ABC = 80° +
Ang. Dist. of *BC* = N. 20° +
Bearing of *BC* = N. 20° E.

Since one sign is plus and the other minus, the algebraic sum is really one angle subtracted from the other. Show by a figure that this is correct.

In each of the two preceding illustrations the given angle was measured clockwise. The method holds good for angles measured counter-clockwise, or to the left.

(*c*) *Illustration.* The bearing of a line *BC* = S. 40° E.; angle *CBA* = 80° counter-clockwise; required the bearing of *AB*.

BC = S. 40° E. −
CBA = 80° −
Ang. Dist. of *BA* = S. 120° −
Bearing of *BA* = N. 60° E.

By the same figure used in connection with the first illustration the student can see that the process here indicated is correct.

(*d*) *An important distinction.* The bearing taken at one end of a line should never be used in connection with an angle taken at the other end without first changing the letters. The importance of this distinction is shown in the following illustration. The bearing *AB* is given as S.E., but the given angle was measured at *B*, hence the bearing of *BA* must be used, and this is N.W., not S.E. (See note at the top of p. 113.)

INCORRECT	CORRECT
AB = S. 60° E. −	*BA* = N. 60° W. −
ABC = 105° +	*ABC* = 105° +
Ang. Dist. of *BC* = S. 45° +	Ang. Dist. of *BC* = N. 45° +
Bearing of *BC* = S. 45° W. Incorrect	Bearing of *BC* = N. 45° E. Correct

It is seen that if the incorrect bearing S.E. is used to start with, the result makes the point *C* appear to be S.W. of *B* when it really is N.E. of *B*.

(*e*) *Check.* By arranging the last two letters of any angle directly under the two letters of the preceding line, as shown above, the following check may be used: *When the middle letter of an angle is not the same as the letter directly above it the bearing of the preceding line must be changed, otherwise it may be left as it is.* (Why?) Thus, in the first column, *B*, the middle letter of *ABC*, is under *A*, hence *AB* (S.E.) is changed to *BA* (N.W.) in the second column. (See also the note, Art. 434 (*a*), p. 382.)

(*f*) *Remark.* The above method holds good no matter in which quadrant of bearing the given line may lie, or whether the given angle is measured to the left or to the right. The method is a very simple one, and the somewhat extended explanation on the preceding pages is justified only by the fact that for some reason many students find difficulty in calculating bearings, especially in the field. At first, in order to be sure of the correctness of the method in any given case, it may be necessary to make a sketch, drawing the given line in its proper quadrant of bearing, and then roughly plotting the given angle. It is far better, however, to do all this mentally. Until the student can *see* in a mental picture the reason for each step of the method as he takes it, he cannot consider himself proficient in calculating bearings. To this end, practice on the examples given below, checking the bearings in the last column. The calculation is purposely omitted in some cases. Notice in each case whether the given bearing is *forward* bearing or *back* bearing.

EXAMPLES IN CALCULATING BEARINGS.

R = Angle to the right; *L* = Angle to the left.

Given Bearings	Angle	Bearing Used	Calculation	Angular Distance	Required Bearing
AB: N 30° E	*ABC*: 50° *R*	*BA*: S 30° W	+30 + 50	S 80° +	*BC*: S 80° W
AB: N 30° W	*ABC*: 50° *R*	*BA*: S 30° E	−30 + 50	S 20° +	*BC*: S 20° W
BC: S 50° E	*BCD*: 30° *R*	*CB*: N 50° W	−50 + 30	N 20° −	*CD*: N 20° W
BA: N 30° W	*ABC*: 50° *R*	*BA*: N 30° W	−30 + 50	N 20° +	*BC*: N 20° E
AB: N 30° E	*ABC*: 120° *R*	*BA*: S 30° W	—	S 150° +	*BC*: N 30° W
CD: N 30° E	*DCB*: 200° *R*	—	—	N 230° +	*CB*: S 50° W
CD: N 30° E	*CDB*: 200° *R*	*DC*: S 30° W	—	S 230° +	*DB*: N 50° E
BC: S 80° W	*BCD*: 300° *R*	*CB*: N 80° E	—	N 380° +	*CD*: N 20° E
BC: S 80° E	*BCD*: 300° *R*	*CB*: N 80° W	—	N 220° +	*CD*: S 40° W
AB: N 50° W	*ABC*: 320° *R*	—	—	—	*BC*: N 90° E
BC: N 80° W	*BCD*: 40° *R*	—	—	—	*CD*: S 40° E
BA: N 60° E	*ABC*: 150° *R*	—	—	—	*BC*: S 30° W
AB: N 30° E	*ABC*: 50° *L*	*BA*: S 30° W	+30 − 50	S 20° −	*BC*: S 20° E
AB: N 30° W	*ABC*: 50° *L*	*BA*: S 30° E	−30 − 50	S 80° −	*BC*: S 80° E
AB: N 60° E	*ABC*: 200° *L*	*BA*: S 60° W	+60 − 200	S 140° −	*BC*: N 40° E
AB: S 70° E	*ABC*: 300° *L*	—	—	—	*BC*: N 10° W
BC: S 60° W	*BCD*: 90° *L*	—	—	—	*CD*: N 30° W
BA: N 80° W	*ABC*: 200° *R*	—	—	—	*BC*: S 60° E
AB: S 70° W	*ABC*: 200° *L*	—	—	—	*BC*: S 50° W
AB: S 70° W	*ABC*: 200° *R*	—	—	—	*BC*: S 90° W

434. Application of the Method to a System of Transit Lines.

When in any survey the bearing of each transit line is calculated from the bearing of the preceding transit line, the *back* bearing of the preceding line must be used, for reasons given in the preceding article.

This is illustrated by Fig. 434 and the corresponding computations given below. Thus if the bearing of *AB* is S. 30° E. this is changed to N. 30° W. in order to find the bearing of *BC* (N. 60° E.). This bearing of *BC* must then be changed to S. 60° W. in order to find the bearing of *CD*, and so on. In the computation these changes are indicated by letters in parenthesis, and *the letter placed before the angular distance will be the first letter in the preceding parenthesis.* In this way the computations can be kept in a continuous form as shown here, and as still better illustrated on p. 391.

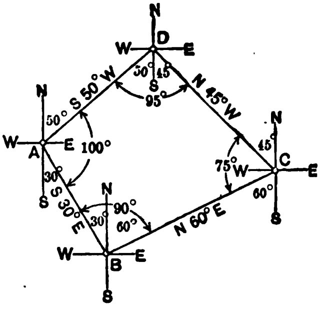


FIG. 434.

It is seen from these two sets of computations that it is immaterial in which direction angles are taken provided proper account is kept of algebraic signs.

ANGLE TO RIGHT	ANGLE TO LEFT
AB=S. 30° E. −(N.W.)	*AB*=S. 30° E. −
ABC= 90° +	*BAD*= 100° −
BC=N. 60° E. +(S.W.)	*AD*=S. 130° −
BCD= 75° +	*AD*=N. 50° E. +(S.W.)
CD=S. 135° +	*ADC*= 95° −
CD=N. 45° W. −(S.E.)	*DC*=S. 45° E. −(N.W.)
CDA= 95° +	*DCB*= 75° −
DA=S. 50° W. +(N.E.)	*CB*=N. 120° −
DAB= 100° +	*CB*=S. 60° W. +(N.E.)
AB=N. 150° +	*CBA*= 90° −
AB=S. 30° E. (check)	*BA*=N 30° W. −(check)

(*a*) *Note.* Apply, by inspection, the check of Art. 433 (*e*), p. 380. In the second column *A* in the angle *BAD* is *like* the letter directly above it, and hence the bearing of *AB* is left unchanged, i.e., S.E. On the other hand the middle letter of every other angle is *unlike* the letter above it, and hence the bearing preceding each of the other angles is changed as indicated by the letters in the parentheses.

(*b*) *Calculating bearings from deflection angles.* Precisely the same method holds good; except that the *forward* bearing of the preceding line is used each time instead of the *back* bearing. (See Art. 189 (*a*), p. 127, for an illustration.) Prove that this method is correct.

(*c*) *To change the bearings of all lines of a traverse by the same amount.* This is also a special case. Give the proper sign to the angle by which each bearing is to be changed, according to whether the lines are to be swung clockwise or counter-clockwise. Add this angle algebraically to each bearing.

Example. (1) In Fig. 434 change the bearing of *AB* to S. 50° E. and find the corresponding bearings of the other three lines, changing each by the same amount. (2) Change *BC* to N. 30° E. and find the corresponding bearings of the other three lines.

435. To Calculate the Angle between Two Lines when their Bearings are Known. This is simply the reverse of the process already given.

Method. (1) Make sure that the two bearings are both from the same station, i.e., if necessary reverse the letters.

(2) Choose either line as a backsight and convert the bearing of the other line into *angular distance,* measured from the

same point (N. or S.) from which the bearing of the backsight is measured.

(3) Give to the bearing of the backsight and to the angular distance of the other line each its proper algebraic sign, and subtract ALGEBRAICALLY the former from the latter, i.e., the bearing from the angular distance.

(4) The result is the required angle measured clockwise or counter-clockwise *from the assumed backsight* according to whether the sign is plus or minus.

If the student thoroughly understands the method given on the preceding pages he will have no difficulty in proving the correctness of the method given above.

Illustration. Calculations of the angles in Fig. 434 from the given bearings. Given: $AD =$ N. 50° E. and $AB =$ S. 30° E. to find DAB. This can be done four different ways,—two assuming AD as a backsight, and two assuming AB as a backsight.

AD assumed as a backsight.

$$\begin{array}{rlcc rlc}
AB = & \text{N. } 150^\circ & + & \text{or} & AB = & \text{N. } 210^\circ & - \\
AD = & \underline{\text{N. } \ 50^\circ \text{ E.}} & + & \text{or} & AD = & \underline{\text{N. } \ 50^\circ \text{ E.}} & + \\
DAB = & \quad 100^\circ & + & \text{or} & DAB = & \quad 260^\circ & -
\end{array}$$

AB assumed as a backsight.

$$\begin{array}{rlcc rlc}
AD = & \text{S. } 130^\circ & - & \text{or} & AD = & \text{S. } 230^\circ & + \\
AB = & \underline{\text{S. } \ 30^\circ \text{ E.}} & - & \text{or} & AB = & \underline{\text{S. } \ 30^\circ \text{ E.}} & - \\
BAD = & \quad 100^\circ & - & \text{or} & BAD = & \quad 260^\circ & +
\end{array}$$

In the above illustration the algebraic sign of each result indicates in which direction, clockwise or counter-clockwise, the angle is measured from the assumed backsight. Find the angles at B, C, and D in a similar manner.

CHAPTER XXXI

LATITUDES AND DEPARTURES

The theory of latitudes and departures explained in this chapter is as simple as it is important. Latitudes and departures are used in plotting maps (see Chapter XLI); also in calculating omitted measurements (Chapter XXXII) and areas (Chapter XXXIII).

436. Latitude and Departure are terms for two co-ordinate distances, one (*the latitude*) measured parallel to a *north and south* line, the other (*the departure*) measured parallel to an *east and west* line.

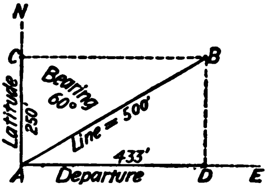


FIG. 436.

Illustration. In Fig. 436 a line *AB* is in the N.E. quadrant. *AC* = *DB* is its *latitude* and *AD* = *CB* is its *departure*. The angle *CAB* is the *bearing* of the line.

Latitude difference and *longitude difference.* Terms preferred by some writers to the old and established terms latitude and departure.

437. Latitude and Departure is Found from the Bearing. It is evident from Fig. 436 that

Length of the Line × Cosine Bearing = Latitude of the Line.

Length of the Line × Sine Bearing = Departure of the Line.

Illustration. A line *AB* in Fig. 436 is 500 feet long. Its bearing is N. 60° E. The natural cosine of 60° = 0.500; the natural sine of 60° = 0.866.

Length × Cos. Bear. = Latitude.	Length × Sin. Bear. = Departure.
500 ft. × 0.500 = 250 ft.	500 ft. × 0.866 = 433 ft.

Note. For other trigonometric relations, see p. 400.

438. Algebraic Signs of Latitudes and Departures are determined by the quadrants of bearing. *Latitudes* are *plus* when the bearing is *north, minus* when the bearing is *south.* Departures are *plus* when the bearing is *east, minus* when the bearing is *west.* Thus the first letter of a bearing (N. or S.) determines the sign of the latitude, and the second letter of the bearing (E. or W.) determines the sign of the departure.

Illustration. In Fig. 438 a line has been assumed in each of the four quadrants of bearing, thus illustrating all possible cases. The algebraic signs are shown on the figure and indicated also in the following table:

Line	Bearing	Latitude N.(+)	Latitude S.(−)	Departure E.(+)	Departure W.(−)
AB	N.E.	*AC*		*AD*	
FG	S.E.		*FI*	*FH*	
JK	S.W.		*JM*		*JL*
OP	N.W.	*OQ*			*OR*

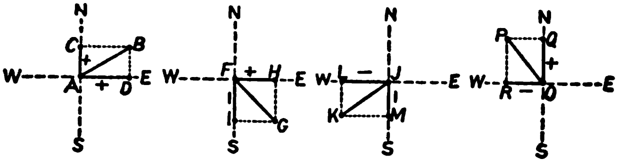


FIG. 438.

Remark. These algebraic signs correspond to those in common use for ordinate and abscissa, i.e., *above* the axis of reference *plus*; *below*,—*minus*; to the *right* of the axis *plus*; to the *left*,—*minus*.

Illustration. The calculation of latitudes and departures according to the method of Art. 438 is indicated below.

Line × Cos. Bearing = Latitude.	N.(+)	S.(−)	Line × Sin. Bearing = Departure.	E.(+)	W.(−)
AB × Cos. *BAN*.	*AC*		*AB* × Sin. *BAN*.	*AD*	
FG × Cos. *GFS*.		*FI*	*FG* × Sin. *GFS*.	*FH*	
JK × Cos. *KJS*.		*JM*	•*JK* × Sin. *KJS*.		*JL*
OP × Cos. *PON*.	*OQ*		*OP* × Sin. *PON*.		*OR*

Remark. It is evident that the *departure* of any *north and south* line is zero, and that the *latitude* of any *east and west* line is zero.

439. The Latitudes and Departures of a System of Transit Lines may be used for determining the position of any station with respect to any other station. The *algebraic* sum of the latitudes of all the lines between any two stations gives the distance that one of those stations is north or south of the other; and the *algebraic* sum of the departures gives the distance one station is east or west of the other.

Illustration. In Fig. 439 let it be required to find the position of *J* with respect to *F*. Suppose that the latitudes and departures have been found by calculation to be the quantities indicated on the figure. Tabulate the quantities thus:

Line	Bear.	Latitude +(N.)	Latitude −(S.)	Departure +(E.)	Departure −(W.)
FG	S.E.		65	80	
GH	N.E.	40		97	
HI	N W.	54			66
IJ	S.E.		48	127	
		+94	−113	+304	−66
			+ 94		− 66
			− 19	+238	

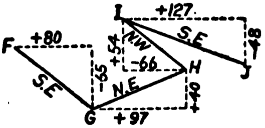


FIG. 439.

It is seen that *J* is 19 ft. south of *F* and 238 ft. east of *F*. It is evident that the position of any point with respect to any other point can be determined in like manner. Thus:

I is $+97-66=31$ ft. east of G and $+40+54=94$ ft. north of G.

Remark. This principle is made use of in plotting (Chapter XLI) and in the calculation of omitted measurements and of areas (Chapters XXXII and XXXIII); also in parting off land (Chapter XXXIV).

440. In a Closed System of Transit Lines the algebraic sum of the latitudes should be zero and the algebraic sum of the departures should be zero.

Remark. This simply means that if a man walks around a closed system of transit lines returning to the starting-point he will have walked as far north as he walked south, and as far east as he walked west, i.e., *northings* and *southings* are equal and *eastings* and *westings* are equal.

441. The Error of Closure of a Survey (see p. 119) may be ascertained by finding the difference between the north latitudes and the south latitudes and the difference between the east departures and the west departures.

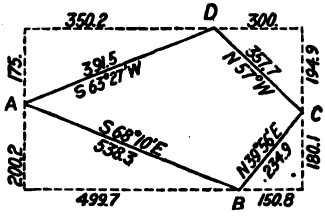


FIG. 441.

Illustration. In Fig. 441 is shown a closed system of transit lines. Suppose the latitude and departure of each line have been found from calculation to be equal in feet to the numbers indicated in the figure. They may be tabulated as follows:

Line	Length	Bearing	N. Lat. (+)	S. Lat. (−)	E. Dept. (+)	W. Dept. (−)
AB	538.3	S.–E.		−200.2′	499.7′	
BC	234.9	N.–E.	180.1′		150.8′	
CD	357.7	N.–W.	194.9′			−300.0′
DA	391.5	S.–W.		−175.0′		−350.2′
	1522.4		+375.0	−375.2′ +375.0′	+650.5	−650.2′ +650.5′
			Error =	−0.2 S.	and	+0.3 E.

$$\text{Error of closure}=\sqrt{(0.2)^2+(0.3)^2}=\sqrt{0.13}=0.36\ \text{S.E.}$$

Since the total distance around the polygon is 1522.4, the error of closure is $\frac{0.36}{1522.4}$ or about $\frac{1}{4230}$. This is the *apparent* error of the field work. The *real* error in field work may have been much greater, since the apparent error includes compensating errors. For example, a north latitude which is too large may be offset by a south latitude which is also too large, or a west departure which is too small may be offset by an east departure which is also too small.

The direction of the error is indicated by the algebraic signs. Thus in this example the error in latitude (−0.2) and the error in departure (+0.3) indicates error south and east, i.e., 0.36 southeast.

Permissible error of closure. (See p. 160.)

442. Each Line has Two Bearings,—Which is Used? In computing latitudes and departures one may go around the polygon in either direction, but the bearings used must all be *forward* bearings *for the direction chosen.*

Illustration. If in Fig. 441 one goes around the polygon from A to B to C to D to A, the bearings used are those noted on the figure because they are *all* forward bearings for the direction chosen. But if one goes around in the opposite direction (A to D to C to B to A), the bearings should be changed so that they *all* will be *forward* bearings for that direction, i.e., AD = N. 63° 27′ E., DC = S. 57° E., CB = S. 39° 56′ W., and BA = N. 68° 10′ W. The principal thing to avoid, therefore, is the careless use of a back bearing in place of a forward bearing. For example, suppose that in Fig. 441 the bearing of CD had been put down S. 57° E. instead of N. 57° W., the other bearings remaining as they are in the figure. In the tabulated form the latitude of CD would then be entered in the south column and its departure in the east column, and of course the survey would not close.

443. To Compute Latitudes and Departures, Using Azimuths. It is not necessary to convert azimuths into bearings. If the azimuths are measured clockwise from the north point as zero, and the usual trigonometric rules for signs are observed, the signs of the trigonometric functions of any azimuth will agree with the signs of the corresponding latitudes and departures as given on p. 385. Thus the N.E. quadrant will correspond to the first quadrant in trigonometry, the S.E. quadrant the second, S.W. the third, and N.W. the fourth. This is the principal reason for reckoning azimuths from N. instead of from S. (see p. 114, Art. 160 (*b*)).

Illustration. In Fig. 441 the azimuth of DA would be 243° 27′. The cosine and sine of 243° 27′ are both minus, hence the latitude and departure of DA are both minus, or south and west respectively. The student can easily satisfy himself in regard to the signs in the other quadrants in a similar manner.

444. Different Methods of Finding Latitudes and Departures. (*a*) *By computation.* The length of each line may be multiplied by the *natural* cosine and sine of its bearing, but usually it is quicker to work with logarithmic tables. Systematic forms of computation facilitate the work and diminish chances of error. A complete example, showing a form for logarithmic work and a method of tabulating results, is given on pages 393 and 394.

(*b*) *Traverse tables* are simply tables of natural sines and cosines from 0° to 90° multiplied by 1, 2, 3, etc., to 10, and in some tables to 100. In the common forms, values are given for every quarter degree, but such tables are good only for rough compass surveys and work of a similar nature. Tables such as those of Boileau giving values for every minute of arc, are exceedingly useful. In finding the latitude and departure of any length expressed by several figures, the latitude and departure for each digit is read from the table (using the given bearing), and brought to the correct value by moving the decimal point. The several quantities are then added.

Illustration. The following line of values is taken from a traverse table. Only half a line is shown; the other half is usually given on the opposite page.

	1		2		3		4		5	
	Lat.	Dep.	Lat.	Dep.	Lat.	Dep.	Lat.	Dep.	Lat.	Dep.
30°	0.866	0.500	1.732	1.000	2.598	1.500	3.464	2.000	4.330	2.500

Suppose that a line is N. 30° E. and its length is 4 ft.; then its latitude is 3.464 and its departure is 2.000. If the line is 40 ft. instead of 4 ft., the two values are 34.64 and 20 ft.; if 400 ft. long the values are 346.4 and 200.0 ft., and so on.

Let it be required to find the latitudes and departures of the two lines *AB* and *CD*, whose lengths and bearings are given below.

AB L'gth = 542.3 ft., Bearing = N. 30° W.		*CD* L'gth = 503.1 ft., Bearing = S. 30° W	
Latitude	Departure	Latitude	Departure
433.0	250.0	433.0	250.0
34.64	20.0	00.0	00.0
1.732	1.0	2.598	1.5
.26	.15	.086	.05
469.63 N.	271.15 W.	435.68 S.	251.55 W.

Remark. When a zero occurs in a number, instead of inserting the zeros, as shown above, move the next number over two places. A natural mistake which might be made in the second illustration is that of putting down 0.8 instead of 0.08 and 0.5 instead of 0.05 for the latitudes and departures, respectively, of the digit 1 in the quantity 503.1.

(*c*) *Trigonometer.* A device for finding graphically the latitude and departure of any line. A diagram is constructed on regular cross-section paper, or squares may be ruled to any desired scale. From the lower left-hand corner of the diagram as an origin, distances are numbered along the horizontal and vertical edges. A revolving arm, pivoted at this origin, has a straight-edge, which if produced would pass through the origin. This straight-edge is graduated to correspond to the scale of the cross-section paper. The upper and right-hand edges of the diagram are marked to correspond to degrees and fractions of degrees, with the origin as a center. By means of this angular graduation the revolving straight-edge is set to the bearing of the given line, the length of the line is noted on the straight-edge, and the corresponding latitudes and departures are read from the cross-section scale. If azimuths are used instead of bearings the numbering of angles should be connued up to 360°. This instrument is useful in rough deterinations, such for example as those needed in plotting to a nall scale, but of course the degree of precision which can e attained is far less than that obtained by computation.

445. A Complete Example in the Computation of Latiudes and Departures. The computations on pages 390 to 94 illustrate every step in finding the co-ordinates for plotting y the method of latitudes and departures.

(1) A rough sketch of the transit lines was drawn (p. 390); angles and stances taken from the field notes were copied on this sketch and checked y again comparing with the field notes.

(2) Angles were adjusted so that the sum of the interior angles in each lygon would be correct. (See p. 119.) The error was not distributed ually in this case, as there were certain checks on some of the angles, hile on others there were no checks. Where adjusted values differed om the original values the latter were crossed out and the adjusted values ritten in red ink.

(3) The field notes gave the angle between Polaris at its eastern elongaon and the line *YV* as 63° 25′ (see p. 390), hence the true bearing of *YV* as 63° 25′ + 1° 37′ = N. 65° 02′ E.

(4) Starting with *YV* = N. 65° 02′ E. the bearings of all the other lines ere calculated *from the adjusted values of the angles.* The form shown on 391 is not quite so compact as that given on p. 382, and there are other inor changes, but the method is the same as that explained in the precedg chapter. The student is advised to follow closely the form on p. 382 stead of that on p. 391.

Remark. In many surveys no observations are taken to determine the ue meridian. In that case the magnetic bearing of any line which is ought to be correct may be assumed to start with, or this magnetic bearg may be changed to a true bearing if the declination is known. So r as plotting is concerned, it makes no difference what value is taken r the bearing of the first line; an absolutely fictitious bearing may be sed, provided the bearings of all other lines are computed from the travse angles. The *relative* positions of all points on the map will be correct, d this in many cases is all that is required.

(5) Another rough sketch was made of the transit lines (see p. 392), d the length and the calculated bearing marked along each line.

(6) Latitudes and departures were computed by logarithms (see p. 393). he data from the sketch on p. 392 were entered in the first column as own, then all the log. sines and cosines were looked up, then all the logathms of the lengths, then the additions were performed and finally the titudes and departures were ascertained from corresponding logarithms. this way like operations were grouped to save time. (See p. 374 for her suggestions for the use of logarithms.)

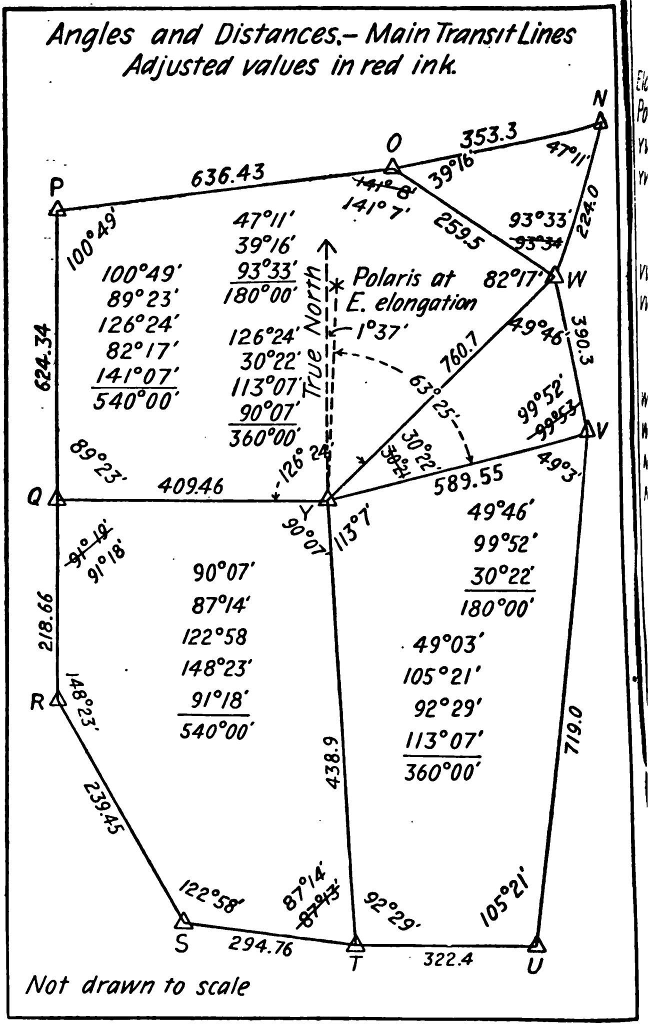
(7) The results obtained in (6) were tabulated in the first seven colmns on p. 394. The errors are found to be 0.02 and 0.14 ft. for latitudes d departures respectively.

(8) The last step was to compute and tabulate the last three columns . 394) for purposes of plotting as explained on p. 472.

Checks. If the errors in (7) are found to be very large, apply two checks:) Compare each latitude and each departure with the first and last tters, respectively, of the bearing of the corresponding line to see if each as been entered in the proper column, N. or S. and E. or W.

(2) See if a latitude and a departure have not been interchanged, the titude being put in a departure column and *vice versa.* To do this notice the bearing of each course is greater or less than 45°; if it is greater, e departure should be greater than the latitude, otherwise it should be ss. (See an article by Mr. Gould, p. 397.)

(3) If no mistakes are discovered in (1) and (2), make sure that the ata were copied correctly and go over the computations again. One an often tell from inspection which latitude and departure is most likely be incorrect, and therefore which computation to check first.


Angles and Distances.- Main Transit Lines
Adjusted values in red ink.
N
O
353.3
47°11'
39°16'
~~141°8'~~
141°7'
P
636.43
100°49'
47°11'
39°16'
93°33'
180°00'
259.5
93°33'
~~93°34'~~
224.0
100°49'
89°23'
126°24'
82°17'
141°07'
540°00'
True North
Polaris at E. elongation
1°37'
82°17'
W
624.34
126°24'
30°22'
113°07'
90°07'
360°00'
760.7
49°46'
390.3
63°25'
99°52'
~~99°53'~~
V
89°23'
30°22'
~~30°21'~~
126°24'
49°3'
Q
409.46
Y
589.55
49°46'
99°52'
30°22'
180°00'
~~91°19'~~
91°18'
90°07'
113°7'
90°07'
87°14'
122°58
148°23'
91°18'
540°00'
49°03'
105°21'
92°29'
113°07'
360°00'
218.66
R
148°23'
438.9
719.0
239.45
122°58'
87°14'
~~87°13'~~
92°29'
105°21'
S
294.76
T
322.4
U
Not drawn to scale

Calculations for Bearings

tside Lines

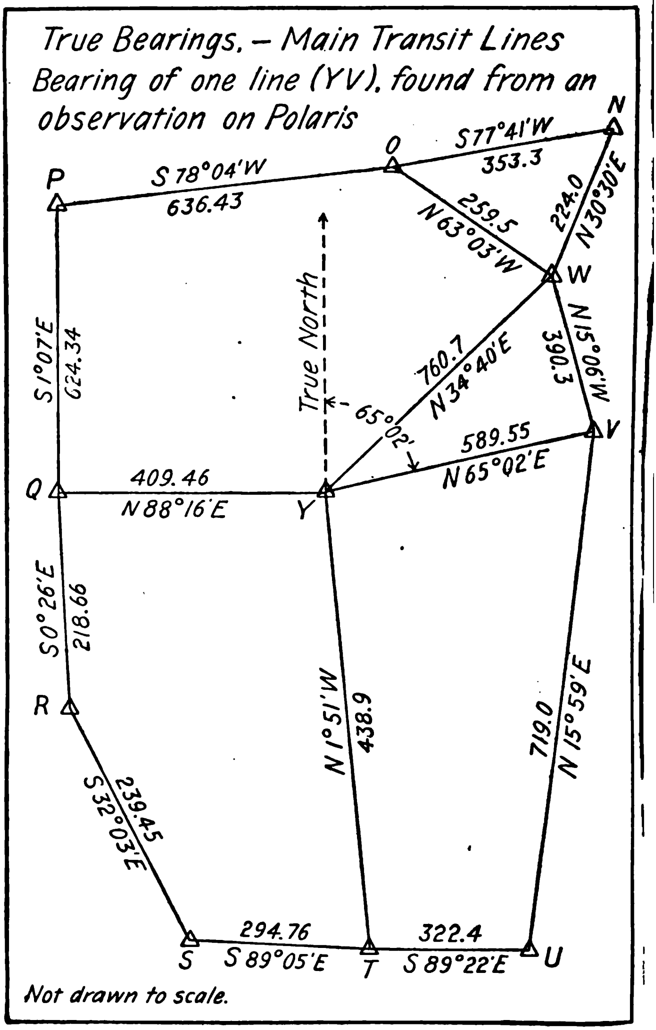
ation 1°37'
is 63°25'
= N 65°02'E + (S.W.)
= 99°52' +
164°54' +
180° 0' −
= N 15°06'W − (S.E.)
= 225°36' +
210°30' +
180° 0' −
= N 30°30'E + (S.W.)
= 47°11' +
= S 77°41'W + (N.E.)
= 180°23' +
258°04' +
180° 0' −
= S 78°04'W + (N.E.)
= 100°49' +
178°53' +
180° 0' −
= S 1°07'E − (N.W.)
= 180°41' +
179°34' +
180° 0' −
= S 0°26'E − (N.W.)
= 148°23' +
147°57' +
180° 0' −
= S 32°03'E −

Outside Lines

SR = N 32°03'W −
RST = 122°58' +
90°55' +
180° 0' −
ST = S 89°05'E − (N.W.)
STU = 179°43' +
90°38' +
180° 0' −
TU = S 89°22'E − (N.W.)
TUV = 105°21' +
UV = N 15°59'E + (S.W.)
UVW = 148°55' +
164°54' +
180° 0' −
VW = N 15°06'W − (Check)

Inside Lines

TS = N 89°05'W −
STY = 87°14' +
TY = N 1°51'W − (S.E.)
TYV = 113°07' −
114°58' −
180° 0' +
YV = N 65°02'E +
VYW = 30°22' −
YW = N 34°40'E +
WYQ = 126°24' −
91°44' −
180° 0' +
YQ = S 88°16'W +


True Bearings. – Main Transit Lines
Bearing of one line (YV), found from an observation on Polaris
N
O
S 77°41'W
353.3
P
S 78°04'W
636.43
259.5
N 63°03'W
224.0
N 30°30'E
W
True North
S 1°07'E
624.34
760.7
N 34°40'E
390.3
N 15°06'W
65°02'
589.55
N 65°02'E
V
Q
409.46
N 88°16'E
Y
S 0°26'E
218.66
R
N 1°51'W
438.9
719.0
N 15°59'E
239.45
S 32°03'E
294.76
S 89°05'E
322.4
S 89°22'E
S
T
U
Not drawn to scale.

Calculation of Latitude and Departures.

Quantity	Departure	Log. Sin	Log. Cos	Latitude
S 1°07'E		8.28977	9.99992	
624.34		2.79542	2.79542	
PQ =	12.17	1.08519	2.79534	624.23
S 0°26'E		7.87870	9.99999	
218.66		2.33977	2.33977	
QR =	1.65	0.21847	2.33976	218.65
S 32°03'E		9.72482	9.92818	
239.45		2.37922	2.37922	
RS =	127.07	2.10404	2.30740	202.95
S 89°05'E		9.99994	8.20407	
294.76		2.46946	2.46946	
ST =	294.72	2.46940	0.67353	4.72
S 89°22'E		9.99997	8.04350	
322.4		2.50840	2.50840	
TU =	322.38	2.50837	0.55190	3.56
N 15°59'E		9.43990	9.98288	
719.00		2.85673	2.85673	
UV =	197.98	2.29663	2.83961	691.22
N 15°06'W		9.41582	9.98474	
390.3		2.59140	2.59140	
VW =	101.68	2.00722	2.57614	376.82
N 30°30'E		9.70547	9.93532	
224.0		2.35025	2.35025	
WN =	113.69	2.05572	2.28557	193.00
S 77°41'W		9.98989	9.32902	
353.3		2.54814	2.54814	
NO =	345.17	2.53803	1.87716	75.36
S 78°04'W		9.99051	9.31549	
636.43		2.80375	2.80375	
OP =	622.67	2.79426	2.11924	131.59

Tabulation of Latitudes and Departures for Plotting

			Latitude		Departure			Total from P	
Line	Bearing	Length	North	South	East	West	Sta.	Latitude	Departure
PQ	S 1°07′E	624.34		624.23	12.17		Q	− 624.2	12.2
QR	S 0°26′E	218.66		218.65	1.65		R	− 842.9	13.8
RS	S 32°03′E	239.45		202.95	127.07		S	−1045.8	140.9
ST	S 89°05′E	294.76		4.72	294.72		T	−1050.5	435.6
TU	S 89°22′E	322.4		3.56	322.38		U	−1054.1	758.0
UV	N 15°59′E	719.0	691.22		197.98		V	− 362.9	956.0
VW	N 15°06′W	390.3	376.82			101.68	W	+ 13.9	854.3
WN	N 30°30′E	224.0	193.00		113.69		N	+ 206.9	968.0
NO	S 77°41′W	353.3		75.36		345.17	O	+ 131.6	622.8
OP	S 78°04′W	636.43		131.59		622.67	P	0.0	0.1
			1261.04	1261.06	1069.66	1069.52			
			Error = 0.02		Error = 0.14				

PQ							Q	−624.2	12.2
QY	N 88°16′E	409.46	12.39		409.3		Y	−611.8	421.5

Note: Plotting co-ordinates are from P, (most westerly station) as the origin.

446. Balancing a Survey means making such corrections at the sum of the north latitudes shall equal the sum of the uth latitudes, and the sum of the east departures shall equal e sum of the west departures. This applies, of course, only hen the survey forms a closed polygon. In such a case there practically always some error of closure, but it does not follow that this error must always be corrected. Thus, for example, on page 394, the errors of 0.02 ft. in latitude and 0.14 ft. departure may be entirely ignored so far as plotting is conrned. This is usually the case, for if the error of closure is rge enough to be appreciable in plotting it usually exceeds e permissible error, and measurements have to be corrected the field. Hence it is seldom necessary to balance a survey r purposes of plotting. When, on the other hand, the data e to be used for other purposes, as, for example, in describing undaries of land, it may be necessary to distribute the errors that the polygon described shall be a closed figure.

447. Two Methods of Balancing a Survey. (1) When all easurements have been made with the same degree of precisn, the errors may be distributed among the sides of the polyn in proportion to their respective lengths. (2) When some easurements have been made with a greater degree of presion than others, the less accurate measurements should be ven the larger corrections.

(*a*) First Method. The following proportions are used:

$$\frac{l}{} = \frac{\text{Total error in latitude}}{\text{Total length of perimeter}} = \frac{\text{Error in latitude of one side}}{\text{Length of that side}} = \frac{e_l}{s}.$$

$$\frac{d}{} = \frac{\text{Total error in departure}}{\text{Total length of perimeter}} = \frac{\text{Error in departure of one side}}{\text{Length of that side}} = \frac{e_d}{s}.$$

$$e_l = \frac{E_l}{P} \times s \quad \text{and} \quad e_d = \frac{E_d}{P} \times s.$$

It is not worth while to split hairs—the corrections can sually be made mentally. Thus approximate values are und for $\frac{E_l}{P}$ and $\frac{E_d}{P}$ once for all and these multiplied by the ngths of the different sides in succession. Corrections should subtracted from numbers in a column where the sum is too rge and added to numbers in a column where the sum is too nall.

Illustration. Let it be required to distribute the errors of −0.2 in latitude and +0.3 in departure on p. 386.

$$\frac{E_l}{P}=\frac{0.2}{1522.4}=\frac{1}{7500} \qquad \frac{Ed}{P}=\frac{0.3}{1522.4}=\frac{1}{5000}$$

AB	$538\times\frac{1}{7500}=0.07$	$538\times\frac{1}{5000}=0.11$
BC	$234\times$ " $=0.03$	$234\times$ " $=0.04$
CD	$357\times$ " $=0.05$	$357\times$ " $=0.07$
DA	$391\times$ " $=0.05$	$391\times$ " $=0.08$
	0.20	0.30

The sums of the corrections equal 0.2 and 0.3 respectively. In this example (p. 386) the sum of the south latitudes exceeds the sum of the north latitudes, hence subtract 0.07 and 0.05 from 200.2 and 175 respectively, but add 0.03 and 0.05 to 180.1 and 194.9 respectively. The east departures exceed the west departures, hence subtract 0.11 and 0.04 from 499.7 and 150.8 respectively, but add 0.07 and 0.08 to 300.0 and 350.2 respectively. The corrected latitudes and departures may be written in the table in red ink directly over the original corresponding values.

Note. Correcting the latitude and departure of a line is equivalent to changing the two short legs of a right triangle, hence, to be strictly consistent, the line itself (or hypothenuse) should be changed to correspond, i.e., a new bearing and a new length should be found which correspond to the corrected latitude and departure. This is often a needless refinement, but when it is necessary it can be done easily by simply reversing the trigonometric method used in finding latitudes and departures. (See also p. 400.)

(*b*) *Another method* is given by Mr. Llano (*Engineering News*, Nov. 23, 1899, and Jan. 18, 1900). Let S = the corrected length of any side, L = uncorrected latitude, D = uncorrected departure, and s, E_l, Ed, and P same as on p. 395.

$$S=s-\frac{E_l}{P}L-\frac{E_d}{P}D \text{ (formula for correcting lengths).}$$

Let B = the uncorrected bearing of any side and C_b the correction in minutes to be applied to this bearing; then

$$C_b=3400\left(\frac{E_l}{P}\sin B-\frac{E_d}{P}\cos B\right) \text{ (formula for correcting bearings).}$$

The quantities $\frac{E_l}{P}$ and $\frac{E_d}{P}$ having already been worked out, the extra work involved is small. Use natural functions in the last formula.

(*c*) SECOND METHOD OF BALANCING A SURVEY. This consists in distributing the errors where it is most likely that errors in field work were made. On the whole this method is often preferable to the preceding method. In using it the following points should be kept in mind.

(1) Measurements made under the most unfavorable conditions may be given the greatest corrections. Thus, for example, linear measurements on steep slopes, or over other ground unfavorable for chaining, are more likely to be too long than if made under favorable conditions.

(2) All linear measurements are likely to be too long provided the length of the tape is not longer than it should be,

hence in making corrections it is better, as a rule, to decrease distances than to increase them, i.e., it is better to subtract from the latitudes and departures in the columns whose sums are the greater than to add to latitudes and departures in columns whose sums are the smaller.

(3) A slight change in the bearing of a long line will affect the latitudes and departures more than the same change in a short line.

(4) If a line is nearly north and south, a slight change in its bearing will change its departure without greatly affecting its latitude, while a slight change in its length will change its latitude without greatly affecting its departure. Likewise, if a line is nearly east and west a change in its bearing affects its latitude, while a change in its length affects its departure.

(*d*) In an article by Mr. E. Sherman Gould (*Engineering News*, Jan. 4, 1900) some excellent suggestions are given as follows:

> The error of closure must be due either to a mistake in calculating the traverse or to an error in field work.
>
> To detect it, the traverse must be first examined. We assume that the courses have been called back so that there is no error in copying, also that the taking out of sines and cosines and multiplications have been checked, so that there is no error there. We also assume that before the columns were footed up care was taken to see that all entries were made in the proper columns. In this connection it may also be stated that it will be found conducive to accuracy to head the columns of Latitudes "N" and "S", and those of Departures "E" and "W", rather than + and −. It is then very easy to see if any mistakes have been made in putting the latitudes and departures in the wrong column. To see if they have not been interchanged, that is, latitude placed in the departure column, or *vice versa*, observe if the bearing of each course has more or less than 45° of departure. If it has more the departure is greater than the latitude; if it has less the latitude is the greater. Thus, suppose the bearing to be N. 36° 24′ E. and the distance 463 ft. The sine and cosine of this angle are, respectively, 0.59342 and 0.80489. Multiplying both by the distance gives 274.753 and 372.664. A glance shows that the latter must be the latitude and the former the departure.
>
> If all this is correct, then without a shadow of a doubt the error, if a considerable one, is in the chaining. If numbered stakes have been driven every hundred feet, and leveled over as in the case of a railroad line, there will be no mistake in the full stations, because the leveling party would detect and report it. The chief source of error is in the pluses, and these errors are commonly made, if at all, by reading the chain backward, for instance, taking 64 ft. for 36. The distances used in the traverse must be then carefully examined to see if such a change, or any change in fact, in one or more distances would reduce the error to limits of normal inaccuracy. By diligent scrutiny such an error is sure to be detected by an expert eye, and then a couple of trustworthy chainmen are sent out to verify the suspected measurement, not informing them, of course, of what the error is suspected to be. In almost all cases a resurvey can be avoided by an intelligent guess at the point where the mistake was probably made. Undoubtedly a great deal of unnecessary work is frequently gone through with in such cases merely for the lack of a little reflection.
>
> All actual blunders or "busts" being thus eliminated, there will still remain some discrepancies between the Northings and the Southings and Eastings and Westings, unless by pure chance they should happen to

balance. . . . The practice of the old land surveyors, when given a survey to locate from a description, was to first work out a traverse for it, which as a matter of course never closed, and then retain all the courses and distances intact till the last one was reached. A closing course and distance was then calculated and the area of the survey determined accordingly. This, I believe, is the legal way of treating a survey which does not close, unless some metes and bounds are cited which conflict. It is, however, awkward when the last course is a course of an adjoining tract, particularly if of an earlier date.

I believe the best way to balance such a survey as we have been considering, that is, one in which there can be found no absolute mistake, and only a slight discrepancy remains to be eliminated, is to go very carefully over the traverse and see to what changes of distance it will respond most sensitively. For instance, supposing that in a large survey of several hundred acres the North latitudes exceeded the South by a few feet, and the East departures were less than the West by a somewhat smaller discrepancy. In the first place we would look to see if this difference was about in the right proportion; that is to say, if the total latitudes were greater than the total departures, then the difference between the Northings and Southings should be greater than between Eastings and Westings, and the fact of their being so would give us additional confidence that the errors were simply due to ordinary small inaccuracies, although this evidence would not be conclusive either way. We would then see what courses, if any, ran nearly North and South. It is clear that by lengthening and shortening these by a small amount we would make a great impression on the latitudes. And the same in reference to the departures. On the other hand, the change of a single minute in the bearing of a long course running nearly North and South will make a great change in the departure. In a word, by an intelligent study of the traverse all minor discrepancies can be eliminated with a small number of changes when placed where they do the most good, and this method will prove the most satisfactory in practice.

CHAPTER XXXII

CALCULATION OF OMITTED MEASUREMENTS

When all the angles and sides of a polygon are known except two, those two can be found by calculation. In that case, however, it is necessary to assume the measurements actually taken in the field as correct,—there can be no check on the field work, nor can the survey be balanced. Hence the importance of taking closing angles and distances notwithstanding the fact that they can be calculated if omitted. There are times, however, when because of some oversight or because of obstacles to field work it becomes necessary to compute omitted measurements. Methods for doing this are outlined in this chapter.

448. Omitted Parts of a Triangle. The most general case is that of the oblique triangle. If any three parts, including at least one side, are known the remaining three may be found by trigonometrical methods, which need not be explained here. The case, however, in which one side and the two adjacent angles are known arises so often in triangulation that suggestions are given below for the order and arrangement of the work.

(*a*) *Computations for triangulation.* (1) Find the most probable value of the base-line and adjust the angles in each triangle of the triangulation net so that the sum will be 180°. (2) Make out a form similar to one of the two given below, leaving spaces for logarithms and results. (3) When the form is completed, and not before, look up the logarithms. (4) Using the computed length of a side as a base, solve each of the triangles of the triangulation net in a similar manner.

(*b*) *Illustration.* Given $a=416.32$ ft., $A=64° 18'$, $B=58° 40'$, and $C=57° 02'$.

To find b	To find c	Check
$b=\frac{a \sin B}{\sin A}$	$c=\frac{a \sin C}{\sin A}$	$b=\frac{c \sin B}{\sin C}$
$\log a =$	$\log a =$	$\log c =$
$\log \sin B =$	$\log \sin C =$	$\log \sin B =$
$\operatorname{colog} \sin A =$	$\operatorname{colog} \sin A =$	$\operatorname{colog} \sin C =$
$\log b =$	$\log c =$	$\log b =$
$b =$	$c =$	

A check which is longer but more sure than that given above is to find b from the formula $\frac{b-a}{b+a}=\frac{\tan \frac{1}{2}(B-A)}{\tan \frac{1}{2}(B+A)}$. This check is quite certain to reveal mistakes if any have been made.

(*c*) *Remark.* In triangulation, one side of the triangle farthest from the base may be measured, and an agreement between its measured and its calculated length is a check on the calculated sides of all the triangles in between.

(*d*) The following form is more compact than that given on page 399.

(1) $\log \sin C =$
(2) $\log a =$
(3) $\operatorname{colog} \sin A =$
(4) $\log \sin B =$

Add the logarithms in the order indicated to get results (5) and (7).

(5) $\log c =$ (1) + (2) + (3)
(6) $\operatorname{colog} \sin C =$

(7) $\log b =$ (2) + (3) + (4) = (4) + (5) + (6) (check).

(*e*) *Remark.* Various formulas for the solution of oblique triangles are given in the back of this book. While the use of these formulas usually shortens the work of computation, attention is called to the fact that any oblique triangle can be divided into two right-angled triangles by dropping a perpendicular from one vertex to the opposite side and the required parts found by solving these two right-angled triangles. Whatever solution is used, prepare a form before looking up the logarithms.

449. Trigonometric Relations of Bearing, Length, Latitude, and Departure. The *latitude* and *departure* of any line form two sides of a right-angled triangle in which the *line itself* is the hypothenuse. One angle in this triangle is the bearing of the line, i.e., the angle between the hypothenuse and the latitude. Any two parts of this triangle, including at least one side, being known the other two can be found by trigonometry.

	GIVEN	REQUIRED	FORMULA
(*a*)	*Bearing and Length*	*Latitude*	= *Length* × *Cos. Bearing*
(*b*)	*Bearing and Length*	*Departure*	= *Length* × *Sin. Bearing*
(*c*)	*Latitude and Dep.*	*Tan. Bear.*	= *Depart.* ÷ *Latitude*
(*d*)	*Latitude and Bearing*	*Length*	= *Lat.* ÷ *Cos. Bearing*
(*e*)	*Departure and Bear.*	*Length*	= *Dep.* ÷ *Sin. Bearing*
(*f*)	*Latitude and Length*	*Cos. Bear.*	= *Lat.* ÷ *Length*
(*g*)	*Depart. and Length*	*Sin. Bear.*	= *Dep.* ÷ *Length*
(*h*)	*Lat. and Departure*	*Length* = $\sqrt{(Latitude)^2+(Departure)^2}$	

450. Omitted Measurements. (*a*) There are no omitted measurements in any polygon when the bearing and length of each side is known. When the exterior or interior angles are given in place of the bearings, and the bearing of one side is known (or assumed for purposes of calculation) the bearings of all the other sides can easily be found by calculation (Chapter XXX). When not more than two bearings, or two lengths or one length and one bearing, are omitted the missing parts may be calculated. This applies of course only to closed polygons. When there are three or more missing parts they cannot be calculated. Missing parts are understood to mean bearings or lengths or both.

There are four general cases, as follows:

I. (*a*) When the *bearing* of *one* side is omitted.
 (*b*) When the *length* of *one* side is omitted.
 (*c*) When the *bearing* and the *length* of *one* side are omitted.

II. When the *bearing* of *one* side and the *length* of *another* side are omitted.

III. When the *lengths* of *two* sides are omitted.

IV. When the *bearings* of *two* sides are omitted.

Remark. When two unknown sides are parallel, Case III is indeterminate unless the area is known. Cases II and IV are also indeterminate unless it is known which of two angles that correspond to a given sine or cosine is the right one to use.

Notice that in Case I only one side of the polygon is affected. This is the simplest and most common case, and the solution of each of the other three cases involves the general method used in Case I. This method consists simply in computing and tabulating the latitudes and departures by the method of the preceding chapter just as if no side were missing. Of course, the survey will not balance, the error of closure (p. 386) being very large, i.e., equal to the required side. Hence the discrepancy between the sums of the north and south latitudes will be the latitude of the missing side, and the discrepancy between the sums of the east and west departures will be its departure. Two sides of a right triangle being known its hypothenuse (the required side) is easily found.

451. Methods of Calculation for each of the four cases are outlined in succeeding articles.

Caution. Before beginning calculations make sure that the given bearings are either all forward bearings or all back bearings.

(*a*) CASE I

WHEN THE BEARING OF ONE SIDE OR THE LENGTH OF ONE SIDE IS OMITTED, OR WHEN BOTH ARE OMITTED

(1) Calculate and tabulate the latitudes and departures of the given sides (Chapter XXXI).

(2) Find the difference of the sums of the north and south latitude, and the difference of the sums of the east and west departures; these two differences are the latitude and departure respectively of the omitted side.

(3) From the latitude and departure thus found calculate the omitted bearing or the omitted length, or both.

Remark. The choice of several trigonometric formulas may be had. Thus, formulas (*c*) and (*d*) or (*c*) and (*e*) (p. 400) may be used first, and then formula (*h*) furnishes a check.

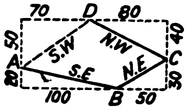


FIG. 451 (*b*).

Question. What determines the *quadrant* of the omitted bearing thus found, i.e., N.E., S.E., S.W., or N.W.?

(*b*) *Illustration.* In Fig. 451 (*b*) suppose that the bearing and the length of *AD* are omitted in the field notes and that the latitudes and departures of the other three sides have been calculated and tabulated as follows:

LINE	N. LAT.	S. LAT.	E. DEP.	W. DEP.
AB		20	100	
BC	30		50	
CD	40			80
	—	—	—	—
	70	20	150	80

$$\text{Tan Bearing of } AD = \frac{\text{Dep.}}{\text{Lat.}} = \frac{70}{50} = 1.4 = \text{Tan } 54° \ 30', \text{ hence } DA = \text{S. } 54° \ 30' \text{ W.}$$

$$\text{Length of } AD \quad = \frac{\text{Lat.}}{\text{Cos } B} = \frac{50}{0.5807} = 86.0 \text{ ft. or} \sqrt{50^2 + 70^2} = 86.0 \text{ ft. (check).}$$

(*c*) *Illustration.* In Fig. 451 (*c*), let the broken lines represent boundary lines, the lengths and bearings of which were not taken in the field. The transit lines *A–B–C–D* were measured, the interior angles were taken, and each corner of the boundary-line was located by the angle and distance. No bearings were recorded. Required to find the lengths and bearings of the boundaries (broken lines). This problem simply involves four applications of the method of Case I. Assume a bearing for any line as *AB* and calculate in the usual way the bearings of the eight lines shown by full lines. Then each boundary-line is an omitted side of a four-sided polygon, and its length and bearing can be calculated. The bearings of the four boundary-lines having been calculated, the angles *EFG*, *FGH*, *GHE*, and *HEF* are easily found. (Chapter XXX.) If the lengths of the boundary-lines had been measured in the field they would have furnished an important check on the calculation of the bearings of the boundary-lines.

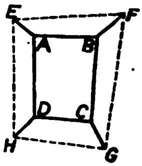


FIG. 451 (*c*).

Remark. This problem could be done by the method explained on p. 406, and one method could be used to check the other.

(*d*) GENERAL METHOD FOR CASES II, III, AND IV

When two sides are affected by omitted measurements. Let the sides *AB* and *BC* be affected by omitted measurements. Leaving these two sides out altogether, the polygon may be completed by a *closing line*, *AC*, the bearing and length of which can be calculated by the method of Case I. This having been done, enough parts of the triangle *ABC* will be known to give the omitted parts by the usual trigonometric methods. Cases II, III, and IV can all be solved in this way. It is immaterial whether the deficient sides adjoin or not. *This will* become evident in any given case if in omitting the two

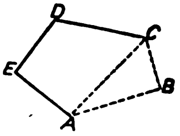


FIG. 451 (*d*).

deficient sides the other sides are shifted, each parallel to itself until they form a connected series of lines.

Illustration. Let the sides *C* and *E* in Fig. 451 (*e*) be affected by omitted measurements. In Fig. 451 (*f*) *D* has been moved parallel to itself to the end of *B*. Omitting *C* and *E* the closing line is *L*. The length and bearings of the three sides *A*, *B*, and *D* remain unchanged, and hence the line *L* must form a triangle with *C* and *E* as indicated by broken lines in Fig. 451 (*f*).

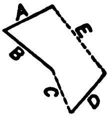


FIG. 451 (*e*).

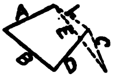


FIG. 451 (*f*).

(*e*) CASE II

WHEN THE BEARING OF ONE SIDE AND THE LENGTH OF ANOTHER SIDE ARE OMITTED

(1) Find the length and bearing of a closing line. (Case I.)

(2) Find the angle between the closing line and the side of omitted length but known bearing, using the bearing found in (1) and the known bearing. (Art. 435, p. 382.)

(3) Given two sides of a triangle and an angle opposite one of them to find a side and either of two angles. (Formula in the back of the book.)

(4) From the angles found in (3) calculate the omitted bearing.

Remark. Two answers aro possible in this case. (See Remark, p. 401.) It is usually evident in any given case, however, which result corresponds to the line of the survey.

(*f*) *Another method for Case II* is to assume for purposes of calculation the side of unknown length to be due north and south, the bearing of the other sides being changed to correspond. This eliminates one unknown quantity, i.e., the departure of the side assumed as north and south becomes zero; the other unknown quantities can then be found by latitudes and departures. It is immaterial whether the deficient sides adjoin or not.

(1) Assume the side of unknown length to be a north and south line, and calculate the bearings of the other side.

If the bearings of the sides are already known, the bearing of the side of unknown length can be changed temporarily by an amount (clockwise or counter-clockwise) required to make it N. and S. The bearings of the other sides should then be changed by the same amount and in the same direction (clockwise or counter-clockwise). (See Art. 434 (*c*), p. 382.)

(2) Compute and tabulate the latitudes and departures of all sides except the two affected by omitted measurements. Of these two the side of unknown length has no departure since it was assumed N. and S., hence the departure of the other side

must be equal to the difference of the sums of the E. and W. departures of the known sides.

(3) From the departure of the unknown side (found in (2)) and the length of that side, calculate its bearing (Art. 449 (*g*)) and its latitude (Art. 449 (*a*) or Art. 449 (*h*)).

(4) Insert in the table of (2) the latitude found in (3) and find a *new* difference between the sums of the N. and S. latitudes. The difference is the latitude of the side assumed as N. and S., and since its departure is zero, the length and latitude of this side are identical.

(*g*) CASE III

WHEN THE LENGTHS OF TWO SIDES ARE OMITTED

(1) Find the length and bearing of a closing line. (Case I.)

(2) Find the angle between the closing line and each of the deficient sides, using the bearing found in (1) and each of the two known bearings. (Art. 435, p. 382.)

(3) Given one side and two adjacent angles of a triangle to find the other two sides and the remaining angle. (Formula in the back of the book.)

Remark. When the two unknown sides are parallel this case is indeterminate unless the area is known.

(*h*) *Another method for Case III* is to assume either side of unknown length to be a north and south line and then to proceed as in the second method of Case II. (Art. 450 (*f*).) The only difference is that in (3) the *length* is required and the *bearing* is known instead of *vice versa.*

(*i*) CASE IV

WHEN THE BEARINGS OF TWO SIDES ARE UNKNOWN

(1) Find the length and bearing of a closing line. (Case I.)

(2) Given the lengths of three sides of a triangle to find the three angles. (Formula in the back of the book.)

(3) From the angles found in (2) and the bearing of the closing line find the two omitted bearings. (Chapter XXX.)

Remark. As in Case II there will be two answers possible.

452. Simple Trigonometrical Methods of computing omitted measurements are frequently used instead of those already explained. An example of this sort is shown on the opposite page, and explained in detail on p. 406.

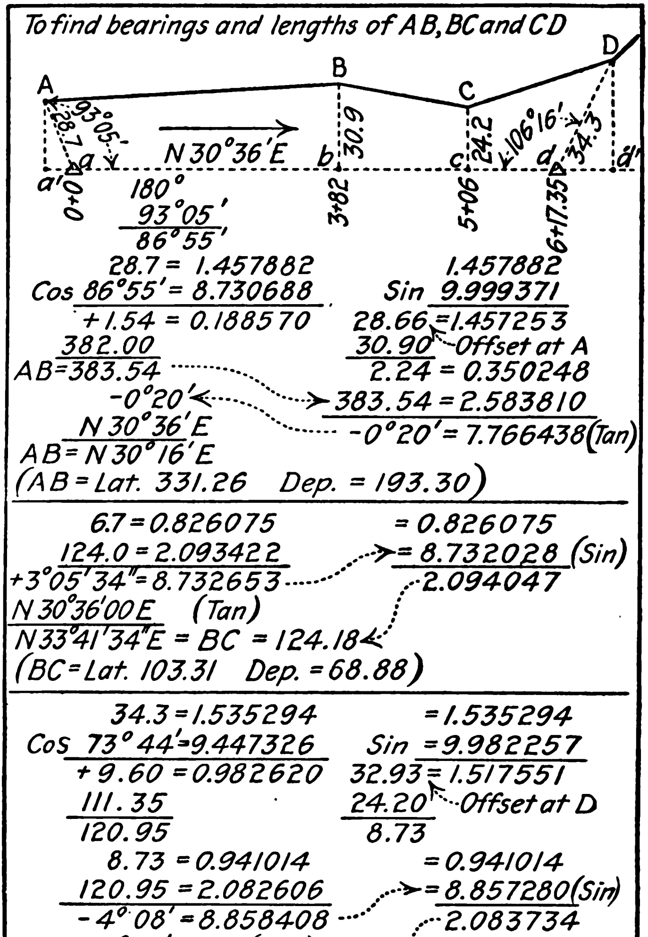

To find bearings and lengths of AB, BC and CD
A
B
C
D
93°05'
28.7
a
a'
0+0
N 30°36'E
b
30.9
3+82
c
24.2
5+06
106°16'
d
34.3
d'
6+17.35
180°
93°05'
86°55'
28.7 = 1.457882
Cos 86°55' = 8.730688
+1.54 = 0.188570
382.00
AB = 383.54
-0°20'
N 30°36'E
AB = N 30°16'E
(AB = Lat. 331.26 Dep. = 193.30)
1.457882
Sin 9.999371
28.66 = 1.457253
30.90 Offset at A
2.24 = 0.350248
383.54 = 2.583810
-0°20' = 7.766438 (Tan)
6.7 = 0.826075
124.0 = 2.093422
+3°05'34" = 8.732653
N 30°36'00 E (Tan)
N 33°41'34"E = BC = 124.18
(BC = Lat. 103.31 Dep. = 68.88)
= 0.826075
= 8.732028 (Sin)
2.094047
34.3 = 1.535294
Cos 73°44' = 9.447326
+9.60 = 0.982620
111.35
120.95
8.73 = 0.941014
120.95 = 2.082606
-4°08' = 8.858408
N 30°36'E (Tan)
N 26°28'E = CD = 121.27
(CD = Lat. 108.54 Dep. 54.04)
= 1.535294
Sin = 9.982257
32.93 = 1.517551
24.20 Offset at D
8.73
= 0.941014
= 8.857280 (Sin)
2.083734

FIG. 452.

12. *Oblique triangle* (three sides given). Area $=\sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}$, where a, b, and c are the sides and $s=(a+b+c)\div 2$.

13. *Oblique triangle* (two sides and included angle given). Area $=\frac{1}{2}ab \sin C$.

14. *Area of segment of a circle* $=\frac{R}{2}(L-C\times\cos\frac{1}{2}I)$, where R = radius of curve, C = length of chord, and I = intersection angle (see p. 204), and L = length of arc.

Approximate formulas for area of segments: $A=\frac{2}{3}MC=\frac{C^3}{12R}$, where M = middle ordinate $=\frac{C^2}{8R}$ (approximately).

15. *Area between tangents and curve* $=R\left(T-\frac{L}{2}\right)$, where R = radius, L = length of arc, and T = length of tangents (see p. 204).

456. General Methods of Finding Areas. (1) From a map by scaling and computing, or by the use of the planimeter. (2) By computations made directly from the field notes without the use of a map. The first method is generally the quicker, the second method the more accurate.

457. Obtaining the Area from a Map. (*a*) The area is subdivided into geometrical figures, such as triangles, rectangles, squares, trapezoids, etc., and the quantities necessary for computing the areas of these different figures, such as lengths of bases and altitudes, are scaled from the map.

(*b*) Two sets of lines drawn at right angles to each other across the map divide it into squares of any desired size, say 100 ft. squares to the scale of the map. The number of squares which fall completely within the boundaries gives part of the area at once. The fractional areas inside of the boundaries, formed by the boundary lines cutting through squares, are usually triangles and trapezoids, the areas of which are found as in (*a*) and added to the area found by counting the number of whole squares. (See trapezoidal rule, p. 411.)

Remark. It is usually more convenient to keep pieces of tracing-cloth upon which squares have been drawn to the scales commonly used in plotting, and to lay the cloth over the map instead of drawing parallel lines. Another method is to plot the boundaries on cross-section paper. Both of these methods are extensively used as rough checks on computed areas.

(*c*) THE PLANIMETER is a mechanical integrator and is used by engineers for ascertaining the area of any figure which has been plotted. The following directions for the use of the *polar* planimeter may be modified to apply to other forms also.

1. Remove the instrument from the case; if it has settings for different units, as sq. in., sq. ft., sq. cm., make this adjustment first by sliding the bar to the unit wanted, then fasten securely by the set-screw.

Place the tracing-point anywhere in the perimeter and

CHAPTER XXXIII

CALCULATION OF AREAS

In this chapter are explained the methods of obtaining areas from field notes and from maps, including the geometrical and trigonometrical methods, the method of latitudes and departures, the method of coördinates and the mechanical (planimeter) method.

453. The Area of Land in plane surveying means the area as projected on a *horizontal* plane. (See Art. 5, p. 2.)

454. Units of Area. Areas in surveying are usually given in square feet or in acres: 1 acre = 43 560 sq. ft. = 10 sq. chains = 10×66^2 sq. ft. (See p. 3.)

Sq. Miles	Acres	Sq. Rods	Sq. Yards	Sq. Feet
1	640	102 400	3 097 600	27 878 400
	1	160	4 840	43 560
		1	30.25	272.25
			1	9

1 Sq. Ft. = 0.0929 Sq. Meters 1 Sq. Meter = 10.7639 Sq. Ft.
1 Sq. Yd. = 0.8361 Sq. Meters 1 Sq. Meter = 1.1960 Sq. Yds.
1 Acre = 0.4047 Hectares 1 Hectare = 2 4710 Acres
1 Sq. Mile = 2.5899 Sq. Kilometers 1 Sq. Kilometer = 0.3861 Sq. Miles

In Spanish measure 1 acre = 5650 sq. varas, more or less. (See page 3.)

455. Geometrical and Trigonometrical Principles. The following formulas are for areas:

GEOMETRICAL

1. *Triangle* = base × half perpendicular height.
2. *Parallelogram* = base × perpendicular height.
3. *Trapezoid* = half the sum of the parallel sides × perpendicular height.
4. *Trapezium*, found by dividing into two triangles.
5. *Regular polygon* = length of perimeter × half perpendicular distance from center to sides.
6. *Circle* = diameter squared × 0.7854 = diameter squared × $\frac{1}{4}\pi$.
7. *Sector of circle* = length of arc × half radius.
8. *Segment of circle* = area of sector minus area of triangle.
9. *Ellipse* = major axis × minor axis × 0.7854.
10. *Parabola* = base × $\frac{2}{3}$ height or $\frac{2}{3}$ area of circumscribed rectangle.

TRIGONOMETRICAL

11. *Right triangles.*

Given	Area
Hypothenuse and acute angle	$(c^2 \sin 2B) + 4$
Angle and opposite side	$(b^2 \cot B) \div 2$
Angle and adjacent side	$(b^2 \tan A) \div 2$
Hypothenuse and another side	$[a\sqrt{(c+a)(c-a)}] + 2$
Two sides about right angle	$ab + 2$

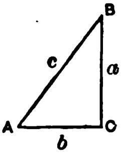


Fig. 455.

12. *Oblique triangle* (three sides given). Area $=\sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}$, where a, b, and c are the sides and $s=(a+b+c)\div 2$.

13. *Oblique triangle* (two sides and included angle given). Area $=\frac{1}{2}ab\sin C$.

14. *Area of segment of a circle* $=\frac{R}{2}(L-C\times\cos\frac{1}{2}I)$, where R = radius of curve, C = length of chord, and I = intersection angle (see p. 204), and L = length of arc.

Approximate formulas for area of segments: $A=\frac{2}{3}MC=\frac{C^3}{12R}$, where M = middle ordinate $=\frac{C^2}{8R}$ (approximately).

15. *Area between tangents and curve* $=R\left(T-\frac{L}{2}\right)$, where R = radius, L = length of arc, and T = length of tangents (see p. 204).

456. General Methods of Finding Areas. (1) From a map by scaling and computing, or by the use of the planimeter. (2) By computations made directly from the field notes without the use of a map. The first method is generally the quicker, the second method the more accurate.

457. Obtaining the Area from a Map. (*a*) The area is subdivided into geometrical figures, such as triangles, rectangles, squares, trapezoids, etc., and the quantities necessary for computing the areas of these different figures, such as lengths of bases and altitudes, are scaled from the map.

(*b*) Two sets of lines drawn at right angles to each other across the map divide it into squares of any desired size, say 100 ft. squares to the scale of the map. The number of squares which fall completely within the boundaries gives part of the area at once. The fractional areas inside of the boundaries, formed by the boundary lines cutting through squares, are usually triangles and trapezoids, the areas of which are found as in (*a*) and added to the area found by counting the number of whole squares. (See trapezoidal rule, p. 411.)

Remark. It is usually more convenient to keep pieces of tracing-cloth upon which squares have been drawn to the scales commonly used in plotting, and to lay the cloth over the map instead of drawing parallel lines. Another method is to plot the boundaries on cross-section paper.

Both of these methods are extensively used as rough checks on computed areas.

(*c*) THE PLANIMETER is a mechanical integrator and is used by engineers for ascertaining the area of any figure which has been plotted. The following directions for the use of the *polar* planimeter may be modified to apply to other forms also.

1. Remove the instrument from the case; if it has settings for different units, as sq. in., sq. ft., sq. cm., make this adjustment first by sliding the bar to the unit wanted, then fasten securely by the set-screw.

2. *Place the* tracing-point anywhere in the perimeter and

press it into the paper hard enough to make a *slight indentation* to show definitely the starting-point.

3. Set the pole, or fixed needle-point, in such a position with reference to the area to be measured that the tracing-point can reach the whole boundary without difficulty.

4. Read the graduated wheel when the tracing-point is in the initial position, making use of the vernier, and set down the number.

5. Guide the tracing-point by hand around the area to be measured in a *clockwise* direction, and stop exactly at the starting-point.

6. Read the graduated wheel again and set down the result over the figures found at the beginning.

7. Subtract the initial reading from the final reading and the result is the area desired. (For exception see step 8.)

8. If the fixed point (see direction 3) was placed *within* the boundary, which is necessary only in large areas, then to the reading by the wheel as found under step 7 must be added the *constant* engraved on the back of the instrument, directly opposite the mark showing the units. Then the sum of this constant and the reading found by the wheel is the true area.

(*d*) *Practical suggestions. Step 1.* Some instruments read only in one unit: square inches; then no adjustment is required.

Step 3. Some planimeters have a *metal block* resting on the paper, into the top of which the fixed point is set. Then the block is held by its own weight, and no needle-mark is made in the paper. Before starting to measure the area it is well to make a rough preliminary excursion of the tracing-point over the area to see that all points of the boundary can be reached.

Step 4. It is often convenient to set the wheel at zero before starting. This can be done conveniently by shifting the pole or needle-point until the reading is zero, and thus step 4 is avoided.

Step 5. In case the area has a loop, or negative portion, start in a clockwise direction over the main area, then the loop or negative part will be traced in a counter-clockwise direction and the instrument gives the difference or net area.

Step 6. If the final reading is less than the initial, it usually indicates that the perimeter has been traced in the negative (counter-clockwise) direction.

Step 8. If the reading given by the wheel is backward when the tracing-point moves clockwise, call this reading negative and *subtract* it from the constant instead of adding.

General direction. Try the instrument first by measuring a circle, a hexagon, or a square of known area, to test its accuracy. By making several such tests of different known areas, a correction constant per unit of area may be determined. If there has been any shrinkage or expansion of the paper since the map was plotted the trial square or circle should be drawn to agree with the slightly changed scale of the map.

458. Computing Areas Directly from Field Measurements. (*a*) The simplest cases are those in which the area required is of some plane figure which can be divided into simple figures of known dimensions.

(*a*) ***Illustration.*** In the chain survey shown in Fig. 458 and described on p. 56, the lengths of the four fence-lines and of the four broken lines were measured. Hence the three sides of each triangle are known, and the area of each can be found from Formula 12, p. 408.

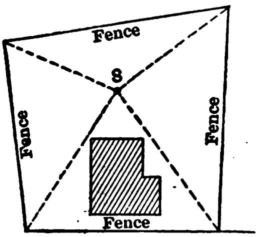


FIG. 458.

(*b*) *Illustration.* Suppose that in the above survey a transit was set up at *S*, the angles between the broken lines taken, and the length of each broken line measured. Then in each triangle two sides and the included angle would be known and the area could be found from Formula 13, p. 408.

(*c*) *Illustration.* Suppose that in the above survey the lengths of the fence-lines and the angle at each corner had been measured but not the broken lines, the method of calculation would be:

(1) Divide the polygon into *two* triangles by a diagonal.

(2) Find the length of this diagonal from the two sides and included angle of one triangle and check it by solving the other triangle.

(3) The three sides of each triangle are now known and the area of each can be found from Formula 12, p. 408.

Check. Divide the polygon into two different triangles by the other diagonal and find the area of each of these triangles as before.

Remark. Usually the transit lines do not coincide with the fence-lines. This case will be discussed on p. 418.

(*d*) *Another method.* Instead of solving the oblique triangles the polygon may be divided into right triangles. Draw one diagonal as *AC*, Fig. 458 (*d*), and from each end drop a perpendicular to one side. These perpendiculars, *Aa* and *Cc*, are easily calculated from the right triangles, and each is the altitude of one of the two triangles into which the quadrilateral is divided. Thus:

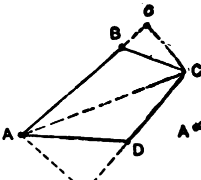


FIG. 458 (*d*).

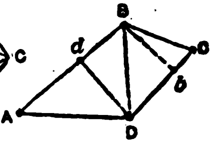


FIG. 458 (*e*).

$AD \sin ADa = Aa$ and $\frac{1}{2} Aa \times DC =$ area of ADC.
$CB \sin CBc = Cc$ and $\frac{1}{2} Cc \times AB =$ area of ABC,

The work may be checked by drawing the other diagonal *BD* Fig. 458 (*e*), dropping the perpendiculars *Bb* and *Dd* and proceeding as before.

(*e*) *Curved boundary.* Suppose that in Fig. 458 the lower left-hand corner were rounded by an arc of a circle and the points of tangency were known. A chord drawn between these points of tangency would form with the other sides an irregular polygon, the area of which could be found as in the preceding illustration. To this area must be added the area of the segment between the chord and the arc. If the length of the chord and the middle ordinate are known, the approximate area is ⅔*MC* (see p. 408). If the length of the arc and its radius is known, use Formula 8, p. 407. If the intersection angle, etc., is known, use Formula 14, p. 408.

459. Areas from Offsets. There are two cases: (1) when the offsets are taken at regular intervals, and (2) when they are taken at irregular intervals. It is assumed that in both cases offsets are measured from a straight base-line.

(*a*) *Offsets at regular intervals.* There are several formulas designed to shorten the work of calculating each trapezoid separately. In Fig. 459 (*a*) the first offset is numbered 0 and the other offsets 1, 2, 3, etc., . . . 6. Let *a* and *b* be the end offsets at 0 and 6 respectively, and y_1, y_2, y_3, . . . y_5 the intermediate offsets, *d* the common distance between offsets and *S* the sum of the intermediate offsets y_1, y_2, y_3, etc., . . . y_5.

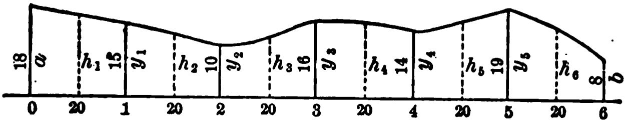


FIG. 459 (*a*).

Trapezoidal Rule: $\text{Area}=\frac{d}{2}(a+2S+b)$. I

$$1740 \text{ sq. ft.} =\frac{20}{2}(18+148+8).$$

This rule obviously is based on the assumption that the figures are trapezoids. It holds good for any number of offsets, and gives results accurate enough for ordinary purposes.

Another form of the trapezoidal rule is

$$\text{Area}=d\Sigma h, \quad . \; . \; . \; . \; . \; . \; . \; . \; . \quad \text{II}$$

in which Σh is the sum of the middle ordinates h_1, h_2, h_3, etc., . . . h_n.

$$1740 \text{ sq. ft.}=20\times(16.5+12.5+13+15+16.5+13.5).$$

Formulas I and II are used not only in computing areas from field measurements, but also in obtaining areas directly from the map, the offsets or the middle ordinates, whichever are used, being scaled at regular intervals.

(*b*) *Formulas for curved boundaries.* When the boundary-line between two offsets is curved the assumption that the figure is a trapezoid may give an area too large or too small, according to whether the boundary-line curves away from or towards the base-line. If the curve departs very much from a straight line more accurate results may be obtained by either of the following formulas than by the trapezoidal rule.

Poncelet's Rule. Let h_n = the last middle ordinate.

$$\text{Area} \quad = d\Sigma h+\frac{d}{12}(a-h_1+b-h_n). \quad \text{III}$$

$$1733 \text{ sq. ft.} = 20\times 87+\frac{20}{12}(18-16.5+8-13.5).$$

Francke's Rule:

$$\text{Area} \quad = d\Sigma h+\frac{d}{72}(8a+h_2-9h_1+8b+h_{n-1}-9h_n). \quad \text{IV}$$

$$1730.8 \text{ sq. ft.} = 20\times 87+\frac{20}{72}(8\times 18+12.5-9\times 16.5+8\times 8+16.5-9\times 13.5).$$

Remark. Formula IV is more accurate than III; either is more convenient to use and generally gives better results than *Simpson's Rule*,* which is sometimes used for the same purpose.

(*c*) *Offsets at irregular intervals.* The most obvious method is to find the area of each trapezoid separately by multiplying its base by its middle ordinate. Thus in Fig. 459 (*c*) the total area is:

$$8530 \text{ sq. ft.} = 50\times \tfrac{1}{2}(40+30)+40\times \tfrac{1}{2}(30+36)$$
$$+60\times \tfrac{1}{2}(36+44)+30\times \tfrac{1}{2}(44+28)+60\times \tfrac{1}{2}(28+38).$$

A second method is a special case of the coördinate method given on p. 418.

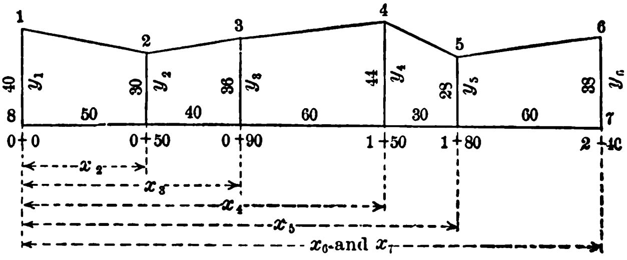


FIG. 459 (*c*).

Formula II, on page 418, may be arranged for convenience as shown below. The area is equal to the sum of the products of the quantities joined by full lines minus the sum of the products of the quantities joined by broken lines. From Fig. 459 (*c*) it is evident that x_1, x_8, y_8, and y_7 are all zero and that $x_7 = x_8$, hence the last two terms do not affect the result.

---

* Derived on p. 690, Johnson's book on Surveying.

$$\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_1}{y_1}\times\frac{x_2}{y_2}\times\frac{x_3}{y_3}\times\frac{x_4}{y_4}\times\frac{x_5}{y_5}\times\frac{x_6}{y_6}\times\frac{x_7}{y_7}\times\frac{x_8}{y_8}\times\frac{x_1}{y_1}\right)$$

$$\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{0}{40}\times\frac{50}{30}\times\frac{90}{36}\times\frac{150}{44}\times\frac{180}{28}\times\frac{240}{38}\times\frac{240}{0}\right)$$

$$\tfrac{1}{2}(2000+2700+5400+7920+6720+9120-1800-3960-4200-6840)$$

$$\text{Area} = \tfrac{1}{2}(17060) = 8530.$$

Remark. If at any point the irregular line turns back upon itself, as, for example, if x_5 were less than x_4, the method still holds good, the algebraic signs indicating the additional area to be subtracted.

Another convenient form is to place the ordinates of the corners in determinant array. Rule: *Multiply diagonally from left to right, and consider a downward diagonal plus, upward minus, or vice versa. Divide the algebraic sum of all the products by two.*

Illustration. Taking the example on p. 417 for illustration, and assuming *D* as an origin, the coördinates of the corners and the computations are as follows:

Station	y	x	Downward (+)	Upward (−)
D	0	0		
E	+10	+14	0×14 = 0	10× 0 = 0
A	−14	+24	10×24 = +240	−(−14×14) = +196
B	+16	+36	−14×36 = −504	−(16×24) = −384
C	+22	+16	16×16 = +256	−(22×36) = −792
D	0	0	22× 0 = 0	0×16 = 0
			−8	−980

[−8+(−980)] ÷ 2 = −494 sq. ft. Answer.

Remark. The minus sign in the above answer signifies that the area was obtained by taking the corners around the field clockwise; if taken counterclockwise the area would be the same, but with a plus sign.

When total latitudes and departures have been found for plotting, this method is very convenient. It is equally applicable, of course, to an example like that of Fig. 459 (*c*).

460. Computation of Areas from Latitudes and Double Longitudes. This method is the one most often used for computing the area of a closed traverse. When the latitudes and departures of the traverse lines have been computed for purposes of plotting, very little additional labor is required in finding the area. The method is a simple one, though considerable space is required to explain it clearly in detail. Several definitions will be given first.

(*a*) REFERENCE MERIDIAN. The north and south line through the most westerly station of a survey.

Remark. This is the sense in which the term is usually understood in the calculation of areas. It is not essential, however, to assume the reference meridian through the *most westerly* station; it may pass through any station provided proper account is taken of algebraic signs. It is usually assumed through the most westerly station in order to simplify matters and avoid mistakes. (See p. 472, for method of determining which is the most westerly station.)

(*b*) THE FIRST AND LAST COURSES of every polygon are the two courses which meet at the most westerly station. The *first* course is that one for which the given bearing is *easterly*, the last course is that for which the bearing is *westerly*, it being understood that the given bearings *are all forward* bearings. (See p. 112.) To determine the most westerly station (see p. 472).

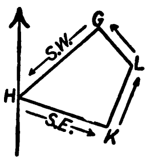


FIG. 460 (*b*).

Illustration. In Fig. 460 (*b*), let *H* be the most westerly station, then *HK* is the *first* course and *GH* the *last* course, provided the bearings indicated on the figure were those used in calculating the latitudes and departures. If, however, the *opposite* bearings were used *KH*=N.W. and *HG*=N.E., then *HG* would be the first course and *KH* the last course. *Note that the two courses can never both be easterly, or both westerly.*

(*c*) THE LONGITUDE OF A COURSE is the distance from the *middle* point of the course to the reference meridian, measured at right angles to the meridian.

Illustration. In Fig. 460 (*c*) L_1 is the longitude of *AB*, L_2 of *BC*, L_3 of *CD*, and L_4 of *DA*.

The longitude of any course is equal to the longitude of the preceding course plus half the departure of the preceding course plus half the departure of the course itself.

For the *first* course there is no preceding course, so that the first two terms are zero and *the longitude of the first course is therefore half its departure.* In applying the rule, east departures must be given *plus* signs and west departures *minus* signs.

Illustration. The correctness of the rule just given will become evident from inspection of Fig. 460 (*c*).

Longitude of Course	=	Long. of Preced.	+	½ Dep. of Preced.	+	½ Dep. of Course itself
L_1 of *AB*	=	0 of 0	+	0 of 0	+	*a* of *AB*
L_2 of *BC*	=	L_1 of *AB*	+	*a* of *AB*	+	*b* of *BC*
L_3 of *CD*	=	L_2 of *BC*	+	*b* of *BC*	+	−*c* of *CD*
L_4 of *DE*	=	L_3 of *CD*	+	−*c* of *CD*	+	−*d* of *DE*

Notice that c and d both have minus signs.

ENERAL METHOD OF CALCULATING AREAS BY LATITUDES NGITUDES. If in any survey an east and west line is from each station to rence meridian, trian- d trapezoids will be . *One side* of each (or trapezoid) will *course* of the survey, *e* of the triangle (or id) will be the *latitude* course, and the mean r *altitude* of the trian- trapezoid) will be the *e* of that line. The ach triangle (or trap- therefore, will be the *of some course multiplied by the longitude of the same* (Thus the area of *FBCG* is $l_2 \times L_2$= Latitude of *BC* × de of *BC*.) The areas of all the trapezoids and trian- s found in any survey are *not* to be added together to total area, for each trapezoid, as *FBCG*, includes area s *not* within the boundaries of the survey, while the ach triangle may be wholly outside of those boundaries. ever, all areas found from *north* latitudes (called north s) are added, and all areas found from south latitudes roducts) are added, the difference of these two sums he required area.

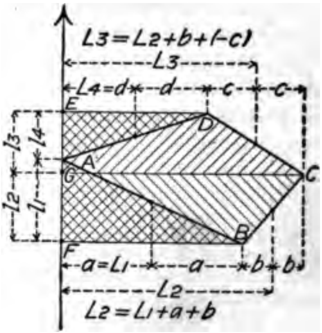


FIG. 460 (c).

tion. The area of *ABCD* in Fig. 460 (c) may be found as follows:

RTH PRODUCT	SOUTH PRODUCT
Latitude × Longitude	Area = Latitude × Longitude
l_2 of *BC* × L_2 of *BC*	*FAB* = l_1 of *AB* × L_1 of *AB*
l_3 of *CD* × L_3 of *CD*	*EDA* = l_4 of *DA* × L_4 of *DA*

ident that the Area of *ABCD*=(Area of *GFBC*+Area of *GCDE*) f *FAB*+Area of *EDA*), or equals the difference of the sums of and south products.

OUBLE LONGITUDES. If the longitude of any course is om the longitude of the preceding course by the method 460 (*c*), it is necessary to use *half* departures. As *whole* res and not *half* departures are usually given in the d form for latitudes and departures (see p. 474). it is more convenient to multiply each latitude by twice the lo tude (double longitude) and divide the final result by two.

To find a double longitude of any course C from the longit of any preceding course P.

Double Longitude of $C=$ Double Longitude of $P+$ Depart of $P+$ Departure of C. In the case of the first course ther no preceding course; the first two terms disappear and double longitude of the *first* course equals its departure. T double longitude of the *last* course also equals its departu but this fact is used simply as a check.

(*f*) RULES FOR COMPUTING AREAS BY METHOD OF LATITUD AND DOUBLE LONGITUDES. (SUMMARY.)

1. Compute and tabulate the latitudes and departures in usual manner.

2. Add three columns to the table, headed respectiv *Double* Longitudes, North Products, South Products.

3. Ascertain which station is *farthest west*, and which of two lines from this station is the *first line*. (See pp. 414 a 472.)

4. Complete the double longitude of each course by addi to the double longitude of the preceding course the departu of the preceding course plus the departure of the course its West departures are *minus*. The double longitude of the f course equals the departure of the first course.

5. Check the double longitudes by the fact that the doub longitude of the *last* course is equal to the departure of t last course.

6. Multiply the latitude of each course by the correspondi double longitude; if the latitude is north put the result in t column headed North Products, but if the latitude is sou put the result in the column headed South Products.

7. Add up the north products, add up the south product subtract the smaller sum from the larger and *divide the res by two*.

If the latitudes and departures are in feet, as is usually t case, the result will be in square feet. To reduce to acr divide by 43 560, or multiply by 0.0000229568.

8. Having computed an area by the method of latitudes an double longitudes, always check the result roughly by means the planimeter or by the graphic method (see p. 458). I more accurate check is desired, repeat the work with the mo westerly station as an origin thus using a new set of coordinate

---

Tabular. In steps 6 and 7 reject all figures beyond the nearest [illegible] the [illegible]. See pp. 426 [illegible] The step of the [illegible] multiplication [illegible] in converting square feet to acres [illegible] may [illegible] multiply by 0.0000229568 using the abridged method [illegible] divide by 43 560. [illegible] in which these constants are multiplied [illegible] for all [illegible] every digit from 2 to 9 is shown. See p. [illegible].

ources of error: Starting h the wrong line for a *first*; adding departures in- d of subtracting when y are *west;* entering north ducts in the column for th products or *vice versa;* *etting to divide the final duct by two.*

lustration. Let it be required ind the area of the polygon -C-D-E-A in Fig. 460 (*f*). ıme that the latitudes and de- ures have been calculated and ılated in the usual manner, next thing to do is to add a mn of double longitudes. It und that *D* is the most west- station (Art. 507 (*a*), p. 472), that therefore *DE* is the first (Art. 460 (*b*), p. 414).

is not necessary to tabulate work done in finding double itudes,—it is tabulated below ake of clearness.

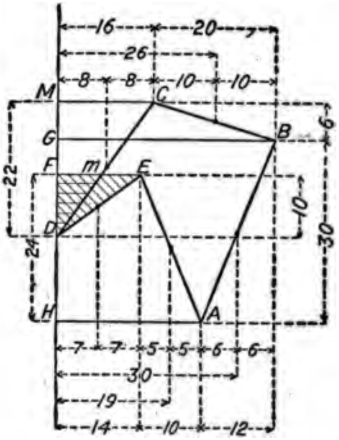


FIG. 460 (*f*).

of	Preceding Course	+	Departure	of	Preceding Course	+	Departure	of	Course itself	=	Double Long.	of	Required Course
of	0	+	0	of	0	+	14	of	*DE*	=	14	of	*DE*
of	*DE*	+	14	of	*DE*	+	10	of	*EA*	=	38	of	*EA*
of	*EA*	+	10	of	*EA*	+	12	of	*AB*	=	60	of	*AB*
of	*AB*	+	12	of	*AB*	+	−20	of	*BC*	=	52	of	*BC*
of	*BC*	+	−20	of	*BC*	+	−16	of	*CD*	=	16	of	*CD*

ıtice that the double longitude of *CD* comes out equal to its departure :heck on the work. In surveys which do not exactly close, the double itude of the last line will differ from the departure of that line by the *total* error in departures (unless errors are balanced). Insert- the double longitude found above and multiplying each latitude by :orresponding double longitude, the tabulated form becomes that ı below:

	BEARING	LENGTH	LATITUDE		DEPARTURE		DOUBLE LONGI-TUDE	PRODUCTS	
			N.	S.	E.	W.		N.	S.
	N.-E.		30		12		60	1800	
	N.-W.		6			20	52	312	
	S. W.			22		16	16		352
							—		
	N. E.		10		14		14	140	
	S. E.			24	10		38		912
			46	46	36	36		2252	1264

1264

2)988

Area = 494 sq. ft.

Question. In the illustration the work practically amounts to subtracting the sum of the areas *MCD* and *FEAH* from the sum of the areas *MCBG*, *GBAH*, and *FED*. Why, from inspection of the figure, should *FED* be included in the latter sum?

Note. For more practical examples in areas, see pp. 425 and 427.

461. To Compute Areas from Coördinates. This is simply a more general case of the method of computing areas from latitudes and double longitudes. In Fig. 461 let 1–2–3–4 be any irregular polygon, the coördinates of the corners with respect to two coördinate axes being known and represented by x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, and y_1, y_2, y_3, and y_4.

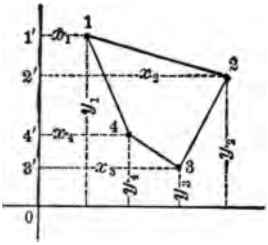


FIG. 461.

The area of the polygon is equal to the sum of the areas of two trapezoids minus the sum of the areas of two others, i.e.,

$$A = (\text{Area } 1'\text{–}1\text{–}2\text{–}2') + (\text{Area } 2'\text{–}2\text{–}3\text{–}3') - (\text{Area } 3'\text{–}3\text{–}4\text{–}4') - (\text{Area } 4'\text{–}4\text{–}1\text{–}1');$$

$$A = \tfrac{1}{2}[(y_1-y_2)(x_1+x_2) + (y_2-y_3)(x_2+x_3) - (y_4-y_3)(x_4+x_3) - (y_1-y_4)(x_1+x_4)];$$

$$A = \tfrac{1}{2}[y_1(x_2-x_4) + y_2(x_3-x_1) + y_3(x_4-x_2) + y_4(x_1-x_3)]; \quad . \;.\; . \quad \text{I}$$

$$A = \tfrac{1}{2}[y_1x_2 + y_2x_3 + y_3x_4 + y_4x_1 - (y_1x_4 + y_2x_1 + y_3x_2 + y_4x_3)]. \quad . \;. \quad \text{II}$$

These two equations may be expressed as follows:

Rule I. *Multiply the ordinate of each corner by the difference between the abscissas of the two adjacent corners, always subtracting the following abscissa from the preceding abscissa. The area is one half the sum of the products.*

Rule II. *Multiply the ordinate of each corner by the abscissa of the next corner and sum the products. Multiply the ordinate of each corner by the abscissa of the preceding corner and sum the products. One half the difference of the two sums is the area.*

Remark. To avoid mistakes in algebraic signs it is better to choose the axes so that the whole polygon lies in the first quadrant. In the above rules it is assumed that the corners are numbered *consecutively* in either direction around the polygon. Of course the rules hold good if the words abscissa and ordinate are interchanged wherever they occur.

Rule I generally involves less work than Rule II. When Rule II is used it is convenient to arrange the ordinates and abscissas as shown on p. 413.

462. Summary of the Different Methods of Computing Irregular Areas. The most general case likely to arise in practice may be stated as follows: Boundary-lines are irregular; traverse lines do not coincide with boundary-lines; boundaries located from the traverse lines by offsets taken at every point of abrupt change and near enough together so that the boundary between two successive offsets may be considered straight.

The lines bounding the area to be computed form a polygon; in the perimeter are included not only any straight boundary-lines which may exist, but also the series of straight lines which lie between offsets and which follow approximately irregular boundaries such as winding roads and streams. To distinguish this polygon from that formed by traverse lines, it will be referred to as the boundary polygon.

(*a*) *First method.* (1) Compute the length and bearing of every line in the boundary polygon. (See practical illustration, p. 405.) (2) Compute and tabulate the latitudes and departures for all the lines in the boundary polygon (p. 389). If the error of closure is small the work in (1) is probably correct. (3) Find the area within the boundary polygon by the method of latitudes and double longitudes.

Remark. The length and bearing of each side in step (1) may be found in two ways: (1) If the boundary lines are irregular the method explained on p. 405 is preferable. (2) If, however, the boundary line is straight and corresponds to the omitted side of a polygon the method of Case I, p. 402, may be used although the first applies equally well.

(*b*) *Second method.* (1) Compute the area within the polygon formed by the traverse lines by latitudes and double longitudes (p. 416). (2) Compute the areas of the triangles, trapezoids, etc., which lie between the traverse lines and the boundary-lines. (3) Add to the area found in (1) any area found in (2) which lies within the boundary polygon and subtract any area found in (2) which lies outside.

(*c*) *Remark.* In step (2) the area between any traverse line and an *irregular* boundary may often be computed by the trapezoid rule (p. 411) or by one of the rules on p. 412. In the case, however, of the area between a traverse line and a *straight* boundary-line the method explained in the following illustration is frequently used.

(*d*) *Illustration.* Let it be required to compute the area of the piece of land shown in Illustration III, insert sheet, opposite page 190. (1) The area $ABCD$ is found by the method of latitudes and double longitudes. (2) The area of the polygon 9–C–D–11 is equal to the area of the trapezoid 9–x–y–11 minus the areas of the two shaded triangles. Since the distances C–9 and D–11 were measured in the field, and angles taken to 9 and 11, the sides 9–x, Cx, Dy, and 11–y are easily calculated. (3) The areas of the polygons D–A–7–11 and A–B–8–7 are found in a similar manner. (4) To find the area between CB and the brook, drop perpendiculars to CB at C and B and find these approximate lengths. (It would have been well to have measured them in the field.) The area between these two perpendiculars from B to C may be found by the method on p. 412, and to this area the areas of the small triangle at each end must be added.

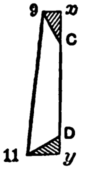


FIG. 461 (*d*).

(*e*) *The two methods compared.* The chief advantage of the first method is the excellent check in step (2). There is no such check in the second method. The first method would seem to involve more labor, but, in most cases, the work in step (1) of calculating lengths and bearings of boundary-lines has to be done anyway, so that the extra labor involved is not as much as would at first appear. Whichever method is used it is well to check the computed area roughly by the area obtained from the plotted boundary-lines (by scaling and computing, p. 408, Arts. 457 (*a*) and 457 (*b*), or by means of the planimeter, p. 408).

CHAPTER XXXIV

PARTING OFF LAND

MANY of the problems which arise in parting off or dividing up land involve only simple geometrical principles which the student can readily discover for himself. Of the more complicated problems, two are of such frequent occurrence that methods of solving them are explained in this chapter.*

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463. General Problem

Given a line L intersected by two lines making angles with L of M and N degrees respectively. Required the distance x from L of a line C parallel to L, which shall form with L and the two inclined lines a trapezoid of given area A. Also required the length of C and of the non-parallel sides of the trapezoid.

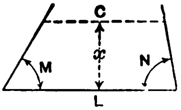

FIG. 463.

$$C = L - x(\cot M + \cot N)$$

$$A = (L + C)\frac{x}{2} = Lx - \frac{x^2}{2}(\cot M + \cot N)$$

$$-2A = x^2(\cot M + \cot N) - 2Lx$$

$$x^2 - \frac{1}{\cot M + \cot N}\cdot 2Lx = -\frac{1}{\cot M + \cot N}\cdot 2A$$

$$\text{Let } t = \frac{1}{\cot M + \cot N}$$

$$x^2 - 2Ltx = -2tA$$

$$x = Lt \pm \sqrt{L^2t^2 - 2tA} \quad . \ . \ . \ . \ . \ . \quad \text{(I)}$$

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* For a great variety of problems in parting off land see Gillespie's *Surveying*, Vol. I, pp 263–299.

From this value of x and the angles M and N, the other unknown distances may be found by trigonometry, for x is the value of the perpendicular side of a right triangle one angle of which is M, and also of another right triangle one angle of which is N. Compute the two bases of these triangles and subtract their sum from L to get C. The lengths of the non-parallel sides of the trapezoid are equal respectively to the hypothenuses of the triangles.

464. To Part Off a Required Area from a Given Irregular Polygon. The two general cases which arise most frequently in practice are: (1) When the *direction* of the dividing line is known, and it is required to find the two points where this line meets the perimeter of the polygon. (2) When a *starting-point* on the perimeter is known, and it is required to find the direction of the dividing line. The different steps in the calculation will be outlined and then illustrated by a practical example for each case.

(*a*) CASE I. *To divide an irregular polygon into two parts, one of which shall have a specified area, by a line having a given direction.*

If no bearings are given the dividing line may be assumed as north and south, and the corresponding bearings of the sides of the polygon calculated by the methods of Chapter XXX, beginning with the side which makes a known angle with the dividing line. If the bearings are given it is better to use them as they stand.

(1) Compute the latitude and departure of each side of the given polygon to see if it is a closed figure. (If it does not close within a reasonable limit of error nothing further can be done with the problem.) If it does close compute its area by the method of double longitudes (p. 416).

(2) Draw the polygon accurately to as large a scale as can be conveniently used, and check the area obtained in (1) by some approximate method. (See p. 403.)

(3) Find by trial the approximate position of the dividing line. Usually this may be done very roughly by a method similar to that used in (2), since the object is simply to find which vertex of the polygon is nearest to the dividing line.

(4) Through the nearest vertex found in (3), assume an auxiliary line having the same direction as the dividing line. A trapezoid is then formed having for its two parallel bases this

auxiliary line and the dividing line. If the altitude of this trapezoid can be found the position of the dividing line is determined.

(5) Compute the area on one side of the auxiliary line by the method of latitudes and double longitudes. To do this it will be necessary first to calculate the missing parts of the polygon formed by the assumed line and that part of the original perimeter bounding the area to be computed; one of these missing parts is the length of the auxiliary line. (Chapter XXXII.)

(6) Find the difference between the area found in (5) and the area to be parted off on the corresponding side of the dividing line. This difference is the area of the trapezoid referred to in (4).

(7) Substitute this difference for A in Formula I, p. 421, and solve for x, the altitude of the trapezoid. Find also by trigonometry the length of the non-parallel sides of the trapezoid, thus giving the two points where the dividing line meets the perimeter of the polygon. Since the dividing line is a base of the trapezoid, its length may easily be found.

(8) As a final check, compute the area on each side of the dividing line by latitudes and double longitudes, to see if the area which was to be parted off has been obtained, and also if the sum of the two areas is equal to the total area of the original polygon as found in (1). (This is a double check, but see *Caution*, p. 424.) It is well to check the area of the trapezoid from the computed lengths of the two parallel bases and its altitude x, before applying the double check just given.

(*b*) *Illustration.* Let it be required to subdivide the tract of land shown in Fig. 464 (*b*) by a line *de* whose direction shall be N. 55° 10′ E., in such a way that the area *dEABed* shall be 8 acres. The solution of this problem is shown on p. 425. The different steps were as follows:

(1) Calculated the latitudes and departures and found that the figure closed. Found the area by method of double longitudes (p. 416) to be 478 810 sq. ft. or 10.992 acres.

(2) Drew the polygon to scale, and using the approximate method on p. 408 checked the area found in (1).

(3) Found approximately where *de* would have to be in order to make the area between it and the highway equal to 8 acres. This was done *very roughly* by the approximate method used in (2), the sole object being to find which vertex in the perimeter is nearest *de*. This vertex is evidently *E*.

(4) Assumed a line through *E* parallel to *de* (N. 55° 10′ E.) intersecting the opposite side of the polygon at *b*. In the polygon *ABbEA* there are two missing parts, the lengths *bE* and *Bb*. By the method given on p. 404 these lengths were found to be $bE = 1087.7$ ft. and $Bb = 15.6$ ft. (The computations made in getting these results are not shown in the work on p. 425.)

(5) Found the area of *ABbEA* by latitudes and double longitudes to be 84 690 sq. ft.

(6) Found the area of the trapezoid *dEbe* by subtracting 84 690 from 348 480 sq. ft. (or 8 acres) to be 263 790 sq. ft. Substituting in Formula I, p. 421, found $x = 299$ ft. Found by trigonometry $eb = 338.0$ ft. and $Ed = 391.8$ (work not shown).

(7) Checked the area of the trapezoid as indicated. Also checked the area between *de* and the highway by double longitudes. Found it to be correct within 60 sq. ft. If worth while, this error could be corrected by moving the line *de*, which is 676.8 ft. long, an amount equal to $60 \div 676.8$. As this is less than 0.1 ft. it was allowed to stand in this case. As a final check the area *DdeCD* was calculated by double longitudes (work not shown), and found equal to 2.993 acres. Adding the areas on either side of the dividing line *de*, $7.999 + 2.993 = 10.992 =$ the area of the entire tract (check).

(c) *Suggestions.* (1) It is well to keep all areas in square feet until the problem is finished. (2) This method can be used for subdividing a polygon into any number of parallel strips, each of any required area. (3) In the case of very irregular boundary-lines it may be impossible to find a vertex from which an auxiliary line can be drawn and a trapezoid formed. In that case the auxiliary line should be assumed as near to the position of the required line as can be estimated and the area computed as in (5). This area will probably be incorrect, but it will indicate about how much to move the auxiliary line for another trial. Two or more trials may be necessary. This trial method makes no use of Formula I, and is frequently used in place of the trapezoid method. (4) It is not essential even in the trapezoid method to have the auxiliary line pass through a vertex of the polygon; it may start at any point on the perimeter, but it usually saves work to have it start from a vertex.

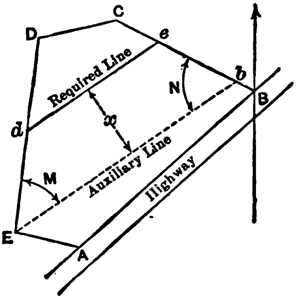


Fig. 464 (*b*).

(*d*) *Caution.* It often happens in subdivisions of areas that several of the same D.L's and N. or S. latitudes are used in two or more area computations (as in the total area and in one or more of the component areas). In such cases an error in the N. or S. products, if they are not multiplied independently each time, might extend through the whole computation, yet would not be revealed by the checks in step (8). (See preceding illustration.) In such cases it is often best to use the most easterly meridian as a starting-point in computing the last set of D.L's.

(*e*) Case II. *To divide an irregular polygon into two parts, one of which shall have a specified area, by a line starting from a given point on the perimeter.*

If no bearings are given, assume some line of the polygon as north and south, and calculate the corresponding bearings of the remaining sides, otherwise use the bearings given. Steps (1), (2), (3), (5), and (8) are practically identical with the corresponding steps of the preceding case.

(1) and (2) Compute the latitudes and departures, find the area and draw the polygon to scale, as directed in steps (1) and (2) of the preceding case.

(3) Find by trial the approximate position of the dividing *line, in order to* ascertain which vertex of the polygon is nearest

	Line	Bearing	Length	N	S	E	W	D.L	N.Prod.	S.Prod.
Area of ABCDEA	AB	N.47-48 E.	1000.6	672.2		741.2		1072.2	720 730	
	BC	N.62-38 W.	573.3	263.5			509.1	1304.3	343 680	
	CD	S.76-40 W.	330.3		76.2		321.4	473.8		36 100
	DE	S. 5-26 W.	805.0		801.4		76.2	76.2		61 070
	EA	S.70-39 E.	175.4		58.1	165.5		165.5		9 620
				935.7	935.7	906.7	906.7		1064410	106 790
	Total Area of ABCDEA=(1064410-106 790)÷2=478 810 Sq.ft.= 10.992 Acres.									
Area of ABbEA	AB			672.2		741.2		1072.2	720 730	
	Bb	N.62-38W.	(15.6)	(7.2)			(13.9)	1799.5	12 960	
	bE	S.55-10W.	(1087.7)		(621.3)		(892.8)	892.8		554 700
	EA				58.1	165.5		165.5		9 610
	Missing Parts in parenthesis			679.4	679.4	906.7	906.7		733 690	564 310
	Area of ABbE = (733690-564310)÷2 = 84690 Sq.ft. = 1.944 Acres									
To find x, eb, etc.	8 Acres = 348 480 M=49°44′ cot=0.84706 t=0.7277 $x = Lt \pm \sqrt{L^2t^2 - 2tA}$									
	Area of ABbE = 84 690 N=62°12′ cot=0.52724 Lt=791.5 $x = 791.5 - \sqrt{626472 - 383920}$									
	" " dEbe = 263 790 cot M+cot N=1.37430 L^2t^2=626472 x=299.0									
	ANSWERS: x=299.0 eb=338.0 eB=338.0+15.6=353.6 Ed=391.8 de=1087.7-410.9=676.8									
Check Areas	Area dEbe = $\frac{1}{2}$(de+Eb)x = $\frac{1}{2}$(676.8+1087.7)299 = 263 790 = (check)									
	dE	S. 5-26W	391.8		390.0		37.1	37.1		14 470
	EA	S.70-39E	175.4		58.1	165.5		165.5		9620
	AB	N.47-48E	1000.6	672.2		741.2		1072.2	720 730	
	Be	N.62-38W	353.6	162.5			314.1	1499.3	243 640	
	ed	S.55-10W	676.8		386.6		555.5	629.7		243440
				834.7	834.7	906.7	906.7		964 370	267 530

to the *unknown* end of the dividing line. (See step (3) of the preceding case.)

(4) From the vertex found in (3) draw an auxiliary line to the *known* end of the dividing line, and find its length and bearing (p. 401).

(5) This auxiliary line is the base of a triangle having two unknown sides, one the required dividing line, the other a portion of one side of the polygon. (See dBe, Fig. 464 (*f*).) The solution of the problem depends upon finding the area of this triangle.

(6) Calculate the area on one side of the auxiliary line by the method of latitudes and double longitudes.

(7) Find the difference between the area found in (6) and the area to be parted off on the corresponding side of the dividing line. This difference is the area of the triangle referred to in (5).

(8) The base of the triangle being known from (4) and its area from (7), its altitude follows at once. Then the lengths of the two unknown sides may be computed by trigonometry.

(9) As a final check, calculate the area on each side of the dividing line as explained in step (8) of the preceding case.

(*f*) *Illustration.* Required to subdivide the tract of land shown in Fig. 464 (*f*) by a line of unknown direction, starting from a given point d and parting off an area $deBAEd=$ 7.999 acres.

(1) and (2) Found the area of the given polygon to be 478 810 sq. ft. (See preceding illustration.) Checked it roughly by drawing the polygon to scale.

(3) Found approximately the direction of de such as to make the area between it and the highway equal to 7.999 acres. Found B to be the vertex nearest the unknown point e.

(4) Drew the auxiliary line Bd and found its bearing and length by the method for missing measurements to be, respectively, S. 75° 33′ W. and 898.0 ft. (See opposite page.)

(5) Found the area of $dEABd$ to be 242 565 sq. ft.

(6) Found the area of the triangle deB by subtracting 242 565 from 348 436 sq. ft. (or 7.999 acres) to be 105 871 sq. ft.

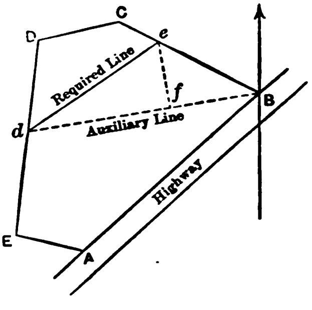


FIG. 464 (*f*).

(7) Found the altitude fe of the triangle to be 235.8 ft., and the two unknown sides by trigonometry are: $Be=353.6$ ft. and $ed=676.8$. The angle $edB=20°\ 23'$, from which the bearing of $ed=$ S. 55° 10′ W.

(8) Checked the position of ed by calculating the area on each side as in step (7) of the preceding illustration. (Work for one area shown on p. 425.) (See *Caution*, p. 424.)

Suggestions. See suggestions at the end of the preceding case.

Area of dEABd

Line	Bearing	Length	N	S	E	W	D.L.	N.Prod.	S.Prod.
dE	S. 5-26 W	391.8		390.0		37.1	37.1		14 470
EA	S.70-39 E	175.4		58.1	165.5		165.5		9 620
AB	N 47-48 E	1000.6	672.2		741.2		1072.2	720 730	
(Bd)	(S 75-33 W)	(898.0)		(224.1)		(869.6)	943.8		211 510
			672.2	672.2	906.7	906.7		720 730	235 600

235 600

Area of dEABd in sq.ft. = 485 130 ÷ 2 = 242 565

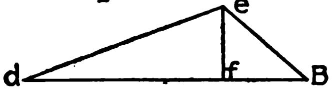
Length and Bearing of Bd. Altitude ef

log. 869.6 = 2.93932
" 224.1 = 2.35044
" tan. Bear. = 0.58888
Bearing Bd = S. 75° 33′ W
log 869.6 = 2.93932
" sin 75-33 = 9.98604
" Bd = 2.95328
Length Bd = 898.0

7.999 Acres = 348436 sq.ft.
dEABd = 242565 " "
Area of Δ deB = 105871 " "
Base of Δ = Bd = 898.0 ft.
Altitude of Δ deB = $105871 \div \frac{898.0}{2}$ = 235.8 ft. = ef

Length and Bearing of de (dividing line)

Bearing Bd = S 75-33 W = N 104-27 -
" Be = Bearing BC = N 62 38 -
" Angle dBe = 41° 49′



log 235.8 = 2.37254 2.37254
" sin 41-49 = 9.82396 tan 9.95164
" Be = 2.54858 fB 2.42090
Be = 353.6 fB = 263.6
Bd = 898.0
fB = 263.6
df = 634.4

2.37254 2.37254
log. 634.4 = 2.80236 Sin. = 9.54208
" tan. edB = 9.57018 log. ed = 283046
edB = 20° 23′ ed = 676.8
Bearing Bd = S 75-33 W
ed B = 20-23
Bearing ed = S 55-10 W

ANSWERS

CHAPTER XXXV

EARTHWORK COMPUTATIONS

In this chapter are given simple methods of computing earthwork, such, for example, as those most used in estimating cut and fill for ordinary grading. For a more comprehensive treatment of earthwork computations the student is referred to standard books on railroad engineering.

465. Grade Elevations.

The *grade* or *gradient* between two points of fixed elevations is equal to the difference in elevation divided by the distance between the points. This grade is generally given in *per cent*, as 3%, 5%, etc. (See 310 (*a*), p. 243.). The per cent being known, the elevations of intermediate points are easily obtained. The usual method is to find the elevation of any point by adding to the elevation of the preceding point, if lower, a quantity equal to the distance from the preceding point multiplied by the grade. If the intermediate points are equal distances apart, the quantity added each time is of course a constant.

(*a*) *Illustration.* In Fig. 465 (*a*) let the elevation of two points 200 ft. apart be respectively 52 and 60 ft., and let the finished grade be a straight line between the two points. Let the existing surface be represented by the full line. The grade is $\frac{60-52}{200}=0.04$ or 4%. For 50-ft. stations the constant change of grade is $0.04 \times 50 = 2$ ft. The elevation of A is $52+2=54$; of B, $54+2=56$; of C, $56+2=58$. As a check $58+2=60$, the original elevation. This check should never be omitted.

The grade elevation of any other point between 50-ft. stations may be found easily. Thus, for example, at a point 24 ft. from B toward C the grade elevation is $56+(24 \times 0.04) = 56.96$.

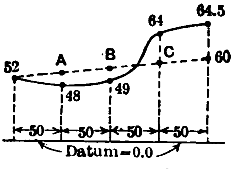


FIG. 465 (*a*).

Note. For a more practical illustration, see computations for sewer-grade points, p. 286, and also *Illustration* (*b*), p. 281.

(*b*) *Cut and fill.* The cut and fill at any point is the difference between the grade elevation at that point and the elevation of the existing surface. If the former is always subtracted from the latter *algebraically*, a *minus* result indicates *fill* (earth to be added), a *plus* result *cut* (earth to be taken away). Thus in Fig. 465 (*a*) the fill at *A* is 48 − 54 = −6 ft., and at *B* 49 − 56 = −7 ft. The cut at *C* is 64 − 58 = +6 ft., and at the last point 64.5 − 60 = +4.5 ft.

466. Geometrical Definitions and Principles. A *polyhedron* is a geometrical solid bounded by planes. A *prism* is a polyhedron two of whose faces (bases) are equal polygons lying in parallel planes and having their homologous sides parallel, the other faces being parallelograms formed by planes passed through the homologous sides of the equal polygons. A *truncated prism* is one in which the two bases are not parallel. A *right* truncated prism is one in which one of the bases is perpendicular to the lateral edges.

The volume of any truncated prism is equal to the area of a *right section* multiplied by the length of a line joining the centers of mass of the two bases. The volume of any *truncated triangular* prism is equal to the product of its right section by ⅓ the sum of its lateral edges. Any truncated prism whose base is a symmetrical polygon can be divided into equal truncated triangular prisms, and hence the volume of such a prism is equal to the area of a right section multiplied by a length equal to the mean of all the lateral edges.

467. Calculating Earthwork by the Method of Unit Areas. (*a*) In Fig. 467 (*a*) let *abcd* be a rectangle which has been staked out on the ground, and suppose that the four corners are at different elevations, but lie in the same plane. The surface bounded by the rectangle is therefore an *inclined* plane. Suppose that it is desired to grade down to a level surface a certain distance below the lowest corner. The earth to be moved is a *right* truncated prism, with vertical edges at *a*, *b*, *c*, and *d*. Suppose, on the other hand, that the finished grade is also an inclined plane (not necessarily parallel to the original surface), then the earth to be moved is a truncated prism whose *right section* is the rectangle *abcd*. In either case the volume is equal

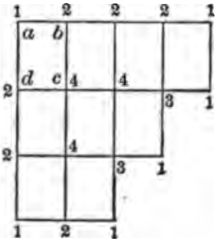


Fig. 467 (*a*).

to the area of the rectangle *abcd* multiplied by one fourth of the sum of the vertical edges through *a*, *b*, *c*, and *d*, or

$$V\text{ (in cu. ft.)}=A\frac{a+b+c+d}{4}\text{ or }V\text{ (in cu. yds.)}=\frac{A(a+b+c+d)}{4\times 27}. \quad \text{(I)}$$

This formula is, of course, equally applicable to fills, i.e., when the grading is carried up to a plane wholly above the original surface.

(*b*) When any surface has been divided into a number of *unequal* rectangles and the surface within each rectangle is a plane, there will be as many prisms as there are rectangles, and the total volume will be the sum of the volumes of all of the prisms. By making the rectangles equal, however, the work of computation is simplified. Thus in Fig. 467 (*a*) each corner-height will be used as many times as there are rectangles joining at the corner (indicated on the figure by numbers). The total volume is therefore

$$V\text{ (in cu. yds.)}=\frac{A(\Sigma h_1+2\Sigma h_2+3\Sigma h_3+4\Sigma h_4)}{4\times 27}. \quad . \quad \text{(II)}$$

A = area of one rectangle in sq. ft.; Σ = sum of; h = corner-height; subscripts indicate number of times a corner-height is used.

(*c*) *Remark*. Both formulas (I) and (II) are based on the assumption that the original surface within a unit rectangle is a *plane*. In practice the unit area is assumed small enough so that this assumption is approximately true, but it is practically never exactly true, and the volume obtained from either formula will be slightly different from the true volume.

(*d*) *If the finished surface is inclined* it may slope in one direction (Case II, p. 288), or it may slope in two directions (Case III, p. 288). In either case the elevations of the finished surface at the different corners must be obtained either by calculation or graphically before the corner-heights can be found. The method of ascertaining these grade elevations will depend upon how the unit areas were laid out in the field. The directions for setting grade-stakes (pp. 288–289) will suggest ways in which the method of Art. 465, p. 428, may be used to find grade elevations at points in any given row.

(*e*) *Method of procedure*. (1) Draw a diagram of the rectangles as laid out in the field, not necessarily to scale but large enough so that the shortest side of a rectangle is at least an inch. (2) At each corner mark the elevation of the original surface as obtained from the field notes. (3) Calculate the elevation of the graded surface at each corner and put the result on the diagram directly under the original elevation. (4) Subtract on the diagram the original elevations from the grade elevations (or *vice versa* if it is fill instead of cut), thus getting the corner-heights. (5) Sum up all the corner-heights in the perimeter used *once;* sum up all those used *twice* and multiply by 2; sum up all those used *three* times and multiply by 3; this will take into account all points in the perimeter; sum up all *interior* corner-heights and multiply by 4. (6) Sum up all the results obtained in (5) and multiply by $\frac{A}{108}$, where A = area in square feet of unit rectangle—the result is the total volume in cubic yards.

When the outline of the entire area is not rectangular this method of procedure must be modified. (See Fig. 467 (*g*).)

(*f*) *Suggestions.* Any systematic method of procedure may be followed in place of that given, provided that corner-heights are correctly calculated and that there is no confusion as to the number of times each corner-height is used. There is always danger of omitting a corner-height altogether, hence in step (5) arrange corner-heights in four columns according to whether they are used once, twice, thrice, or four times, taking interior corners in order, vertically or horizontally. Before adding, see if each of the quantities in the four columns agrees with the corresponding quantity on the diagram; if it does put a check-mark near the latter, and finally inspect the diagram to see if there are any corner-heights without check-marks.

(*g*) *When the outline of an area is not rectangular,* as in Fig. 467 (*g*), it cannot be subdivided into squares or rectangles, but as much as possible of the calculation is done by the method of the preceding article, and the rest by finding the volumes of the irregular solids around the edges. Thus in Fig. 467 (*g*) the unshaded portion was divided into 50-ft. squares and the corresponding volume computed by the preceding method. Extending the lines to the boundaries, a number of irregular areas are formed (indicated by cross-lines). From each area and the corresponding corner-heights the volume of the corresponding prism may be found, and the sum of these volumes added to the volume of the unshaded portion. In the majority of cases the irregular areas will be trapezoids; the middle height

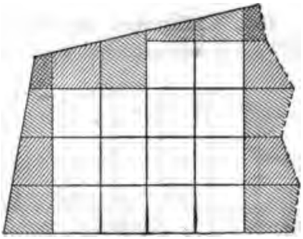


FIG. 467 (*g*).

of each trapezoid (computed or scaled) multiplied by the base gives the area, and this area multiplied by the mean of the corresponding corner-heights gives the volume. In Fig. 467 (*g*) all the shaded areas are trapezoids except the two in the upper corners (double-cross-lined), and each of these may be divided into a trapezoid and a triangle.

When a cut or fill "runs out to zero" the boundary-line is usually irregular, as shown by the dotted line. (See Fig. 468.) In a perfectly general case of this kind all four sides of the figure would be bounded by irregular lines, but the method would still hold good.

(*h*) *Suggestions.* Good judgment in choosing the size of the unit square or rectangle, and in planning the general arrangement, will save work both in the field and in the office. The surface within a unit area should be approximately a plane, and the aim should be to have the smallest number of corners consistent with this rule. (See Remark, p. 430.) Frequently large unit areas can be used for the greater portion of the work where the ground is even, smaller unit areas being adopted for places where the ground is uneven.

In very uneven ground the assumption that the four corners of a unit area lie in the same plane is seldom true, but any three points will lie in a plane, hence better results may be obtained by subdividing each unit square or rectangle into two triangles by drawing that one of the two diagonals which more nearly fits the ground. Each corner-height will then be used as many times as there are triangles meeting at that corner. (Why cannot this number exceed eight?) Formula II, p. 430, then becomes

$$V \text{ (in cu. yds.)} = \frac{A(\Sigma h_1 + 2\Sigma h_2 + 3\Sigma h_3 + \text{etc.}, \ldots 8\Sigma h_8)}{6 \times 27}, \quad . \quad \text{(III)}$$

in which *A* is the area of a *unit rectangle* or *square*, and the subscripts denote the number of triangles meeting at a corner.

468. Estimates of Cut and Fill. In Figs. 467 (*a*) and 467 (*g*) it was assumed that the graded or finished surface would be entirely below or above the original surface, i.e., that the grading would be all cut or all fill. More often in practice the problem is one in both cut and fill. Suppose that in Fig. 468 the elevations of the ground at all corners of the squares have been ascertained, and it is desired to grade down to an elevation of 20 ft. above datum. Let the outside broken line represent the *boundary of the area* to be graded. Suppose that the elevations of

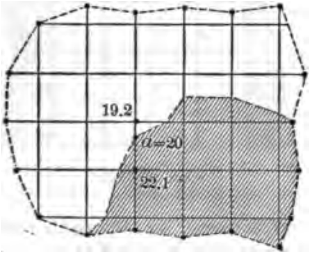


FIG. 468.

e corners within the shaded area are *above* 20 ft. and those unshaded area are *below* 20 ft. Then there must be a line where between (represented by the inside broken line) passes through points of exactly 20 ft. elevation, i.e., a grade, corresponding to a 20-ft. contour. Points through this line passes may be determined by interpolation as ined below. The volume of cut (shaded area) and the e of fill (unshaded area) can each be calculated by the d of the preceding article, and the difference between the s the amount of earth which must be "borrowed" or away, according to whether the fill or the cut is in excess, ing that no allowance is made for shrinkage or expansion.

ark. In the above illustration the finished surface is level, hence de elevation at any point, as, for example, at any corner of any or at any point between corners, is 20 ft. The interpolation point, as *a*, is very simple, since its elevation must be 20 ft. (See 39 for method.) When the finished surface is inclined the grade ons at the corners of the squares will differ, but once the cut or fill corner is known the work of interpolation is no more difficult than evel grade.

etimes portions of the outside boundary-line are determined by the where the grade "runs out," i.e., where there is neither cut nor such a case these points may also be found by interpolation.

. Interpolation. (*a*) Let the elevations of the surface ground at *A* and *B*, two corners of a square, be 19.2 and espectively. Suppose that the graded or finished surface l and its elevation is 20 ft. It is required to find a point e line *AB* where the existing surface is ected by the graded surface, assuming rmer to slope uniformly from *A* to *B*. are several methods, arithmetical, ic, and mechanical, based on the prop- of similar triangles. One of the sim- graphic methods is shown in the figure. 19.2 − 20 = −0.8 (fill), and at *B* 22.1 − -2.1 (cut), hence lay off to any scale s in one direction and 21 units in the opposite direction, wn a straight-edge between the points thus obtained (in- d by the broken line), and mark the required point *C*. the 8 units and the 21 units may be laid off on any two el lines through *A* and *B*, it saves time to use the sides square, and points can be interpolated in a case like that . 469 without drawing any lines whatever. This method ivalent to plotting a vertical section through *A* and *B* in

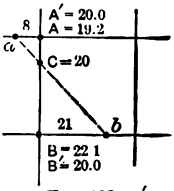


FIG. 469.

which $A'B'$ is a level line of 20-ft. elevation, a a point 0.8 ft. below this line, and b a point 2.1 ft. above it.

In other words the fill (−0.8) is laid off in one direction and the cut (+2.1) is laid off in the other. It is well, therefore, before beginning to interpolate to go over the plot and mark the amount of cut or fill at each corner.

(*b*) *When the grade is not level.* (1) Find the grade elevation at each corner. (2) Find the cut or fill at each corner. (3) Proceed as above, i.e., lay off the fill in one direction, the cut in the other on parallel lines, and lay a straight-edge between the points thus obtained; it will cross the side of the square in the required point. (Draw a figure and prove this.)

Note. For other methods of interpolation see page 497.

470. Prismoids. *Definition.* "A prismoid is a solid having for its two ends any *dissimilar* parallel plane figures of the *same* number of sides, and all the sides of the solid plane figures also." Any prismoid may be resolved into prisms, pyramids, and wedges, the common altitude of which is the perpendicular distances between the two parallel end planes.

Many excavations and embankments, especially those which occur in the construction of roads and railroads, are more nearly prismoids than prisms. There are several methods of computing the volume of a prismoid. Two of the most common are indicated by the following formulas, in which A_1 and A_2 represent the areas of the two parallel end faces, M the area of the middle section parallel to the end planes, and l the length or perpendicular distance between the end planes:

End-area Formula: $$V \text{ (in cu. yds.)} = \tfrac{1}{2}(A_1 + A_2) \times \frac{l}{27}. \quad \text{(IV)}$$

Prismoidal Formula: $$V \text{ (in cu. yds.)} = \tfrac{1}{6}(A_1 + 4M + A_2) \times \frac{l}{27}. \quad \text{(V)}$$

The "end-area formula" gives approximate results, close enough for rough estimates, and is in general use. The "prismoidal formula" is of wide application, since it gives the correct volume of any solid bounded by two parallel plane faces, and defined by the surfaces generated by a straight line moving upon the perimeters of these faces as directrices. It is used as a basis for earthwork computations in railroad work, and it would be used more extensively than it is were it not for the extra labor involved in finding M. The area M is *not* the mean of A_1 and A_2, but each of its linear dimensions is the average of e corresponding dimensions of A_1 and A_2, and from these near dimensions the area M is found. The middle section is metimes measured on the ground; or in a series of such secons, equally spaced, each alternate section may be taken as , and the length of the prismoid as twice the distance between oss-sections. For a continuous line of earthwork the prisoidal formula then becomes:

$$V=\frac{l}{3\times 27}(A_1+4A_2+2A_3+4A_4+2A_5+4A_6\ldots+A_n)\ldots \quad \text{VI}$$

In ordinary cross-sectioning it is customary to take elevations the surface of the ground at three points (middle point and o side points), on a line at right angles to the center-line, at ery 100-ft. station, unless a sudden change in the ground quires an intermediate cross-section. For "three-level" sections the work of computation is simplified by finding the lume first by the inexact method of "end areas" and then plying a "prismoidal correction". The work is further ortened by the use of diagrams.*

471. Estimating Cut and Fill from a Contour Map. ere are several methods in which approximate estimates for ading can be made from contour maps.

(*a*) *First Method.* In Fig. 471 (*a*) the contours of the existing rface are represented by full lines. The figures around the tside of the bounding lines e the grade elevations at se points, and hence the aight lines represent conurs of the finished or aded surface at one-foot ervals. At every point ere a straight line interts a contour of the existg surface the cut or fill can found by simply subtractg the elevation of the aight line from the elevan of the contour. By joining points of equal cut or fill, a

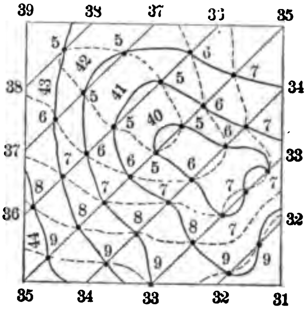


FIG. 471 (*a*).

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* For prismoidal-correction formulas and for complete discussions of the ole subject of earthwork calculation consult books on railroad surveying h as Webb's "Railroad Construction" (John Wiley & Sons), or Allen's ailroad Curves and Earthwork" (Spon & Chamberlain, New York).

set of lines is obtained (represented by broken lines in Fig. 471 (*a*)) which are the horizontal projections of lines cut from the existing surface by planes parallel to the finished surface. In this case these planes are one foot apart, measured vertically. The layer of earth between any two of these parallel planes is a solid having for its two parallel bases the irregular areas enclosed by the two corresponding broken lines, and for its altitude the vertical distance of one foot. The volume of this solid may be obtained by the end-area method or by the prismoidal formula, the irregular areas being found from the map by scaling and computing or by the use of the planimeter. The sum of the volumes of all the layers is the total volume required.

(*b*) *Illustration.* The line passing through the points marked 5 in Fig. 471 (*a*) is the horizontal projection of a line on the existing surface which encloses an imaginary irregular surface that is parallel to and 5 ft. above the finished surface. Likewise the line through points marked 6 represents the boundary of an imaginary surface parallel to and 6 ft. above the finished surface. The area enclosed by the 5-ft. line and the area between the 6-ft. line and the top and left bounding line are ascertained, and the volume between these two irregular surfaces computed as explained above. The volumes of the other layers may be found in a similar manner.

(*c*) *Second Method.* (1) Divide the map into unit squares or unit rectangles by ruled lines. (2) Find by interpolation the elevation of the existing surface at the corners of each unit square. (This is done by a method the reverse of that explained in Art. 469, p. 433.) (3) Ascertain the grade elevation at each corner and then the corner-height. (4) Calculate the volume by the method of Art. 467, p. 429.

(*d*) *Remark.* The two preceding methods are used most in estimates where the finished or graded surface is a plane—level or inclined. For warped or undulating surfaces, or for structures like dams or reservoirs and terraces having regular outlines, another method (given below) is often used.

(*e*) *Third Method.* (1) Make an accurate map on which the existing surface of the ground is shown by contours drawn in black ink. (2) On this map lay out contours in red ink which *correspond in elevation* to those in black ink, but which represent the finished or graded surface. If this final surface is to be curving or undulating, the red-ink contours will be curving lines, but if it is a surface composed of *plane* faces, like the inside slopes of a rectangular reservoir, the red-ink coutours will be a series of straight lines.* (3) The area enclosed by a redontour and a black-ink contour of the same elevation is orizontal area of the cut or fill at that elevation. (4) The of earth between two of these successive areas is approxily a prismoid, the altitude of which is the contour interval. volumes of successive layers may be obtained by the endmethod or by the prismoidal formula, but if the latter is it is better to consider every other area as a middle area, the height of the prismoid as *twice* the contour interval. s are usually found from the map by means of the plater.

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* See Raymond's "Plane Surveying" (American Book Co., New York), p. 285, or Johnson's "Plane Surveying" (John Wiley & Sons), p. 446, for an illustration of this method applied to a reservoir.

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE USE OF THE DRAWING INSTRUMENTS *

In this chapter are given such directions and suggestions for the use of drawing instruments as are of special importance in mapping.

472. Use of the Pencil. (1) Use a 6-H pencil for ordinary map-drawing, but for penciling directly on tracing-cloth a 3-H pencil (or softer) is better. Sharpen as follows: Cut the wood back a little more than an inch at *each* end of the pencil, *leaving at least ⅜ in. of lead exposed.* Sharpen the lead at one end to a *long thin wedge* by rubbing the flat sides on fine sandpaper alternately as in sharpening a knife, until they taper gradually from the wood to a knife-edge. Sharpen the lead at the other end to a *long* cone-shaped point by rolling the lead as it is rubbed.

Remark. The above directions are made explicit because so many students neglect to sharpen their pencils properly. It is practically impossible to do accurate work in plotting with a lead that is dull or soft—clear hair-lines are absolutely essential.

(2) Draw lines so close to the ruling edge that they are scarcely visible until the edge is moved away. To insure this, it may be necessary to incline the top of the pencil slightly outward, thus bringing the flat side of the lead in contact with the *lower* corner of the ruling edge. The pencil should be held nearly vertical, and it should be *drawn,* not *pushed.* Do not use the cone-shaped lead for ruling lines—it will wear off too fast; keep it sharp for marking points.

473. Use of the T-square. (1) Make sure that the upper edge of the blade is straight,† and do not use the lower edge unless it is known to be truly parallel to the upper edge.

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* This chapter is taken largely from a similar chapter in the author's "An Introductory Course in Mechanical Drawing" (American Book Co.). The student is referred to that book for a more complete treatise on the use of drawing instruments.

† To test an edge for straightness draw a fine hair-line in exact contact with the edge, and then turning the T-square end for end, see if the same edge coincides with the line throughout its length.

(2) Use the T-square against the left-hand edge of the board for horizontal lines, and acquire the habit of *feeling* the head in perfect contact with the edge before starting to draw a line.

(3) Do not use the T-square with its head against the right-hand edge of the board unless you draw with your left hand.

(4) Do not draw vertical lines by placing the head of the T-square against the top or bottom of the board except in ough work, for adjacent edges of the ordinary drawing-board are seldom exactly at right angles to each other.

(5) In drawing long oblique lines it is sometimes necessary to turn the T-square over in order that it may lie flat. In that case use the edge of the blade which is known to be straight and take extra pains to keep the blade from slipping.

474. Use of the Triangles.* (1) In drawing a line through a point the corner of the triangle should never be at the point. For example, do not erect a perpendicular to an oblique line by fitting one edge of a triangle against the line and drawing the perpendicular along another edge without moving the triangle, but fit one edge to the line, bring the edge of a second triangle or the edge of a T-square into contact, and slide the first triangle until the perpendicular passes through the point. Another method is to fit the hypothenuse of a triangle to the line, and bringing a straight edge into contact with a second side, turn the triangle until its third side is in contact with the stationary edge, thus bringing the hypothenuse perpendicular to the given line. In either method, exercise great care to keep the stationary straight edge from slipping.

(2) By placing the 45° triangle against the horizontal edge of a T-square and the 30° or 60° triangle against the edge of the 45° triangle, 15° and 75° lines can be drawn.

(3) In drawing a line parallel to a given line, slide the triangle along the edge of the T-square if the lines are too far apart to use the usual combination of two triangles.

(4) It is difficult to make the edge of a triangle pass through a point or coincide with a line if that edge casts a shadow.

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* A new triangle should always be tested. The right angle may be tested by placing one edge against the T-square and drawing a vertical line along the other edge. Turn the triangle over, placing the same edge against the T-square, and if the triangle is not right-angled the vertical edge will not coincide with the vertical line. A 60° angle may be tested by constructing an equilateral triangle wholly with the triangle and T-square. Similar tests will suggest themselves for 30° or 45°.

Avoid shadows by turning the drawing-board or by working from different sides of the board.

475. Use of the Scale. The scale commonly used in mapping is the *decimal* scale. The form recommended is the triangular scale in which the smallest divisions on the six sides are respectively $\frac{1}{10}$, $\frac{1}{20}$, $\frac{1}{30}$, $\frac{1}{40}$, $\frac{1}{50}$, and $\frac{1}{60}$ of an inch. In using the scale for plotting do *not* reduce measurements by arithmetic, but read distances directly from the scale itself *by changing in the mind the value of each division on the scale.*

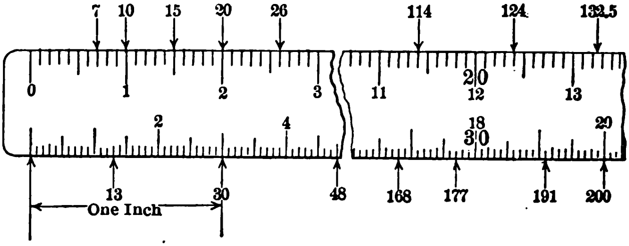

FIG. 475.

Illustration. The smallest division on the upper edge of the scale, Fig. 475, is $\frac{1}{20}$ of an inch. When plotting 20 ft. to the inch consider each of these divisions as representing one foot. The portion to the right of the break is at the center of a 12-inch scale, and the "20" marked in large numerals indicates the number of divisions to the inch. On the lower scale the "30" indicates that each inch is divided into thirty parts. The other four edges of the scale not shown in the figure are marked at the center 10, 40, 50, and 60 respectively.

In reading the scale simply add a cipher to the nearest number preceding the point. The distance in *feet* that each arrow in Fig. 475 is from the zero-point is indicated by the corresponding number.

To plot 100 ft. to the inch use the 50 side and double the value of each division, i.e., $\frac{1}{50}$ in. = 2 ft. To plot 200 ft. to the inch, let each $\frac{1}{50}$ in. = 4 ft.; 300 ft. to the inch, $\frac{1}{60}$ in. = 5 ft., or $\frac{1}{30}$ in. = 10 ft., and so on.

For additional suggestions for using the scale see p. 448.

476. Use of the Ruling-pen. (1) Never begin to ink a drawing until the ruling-pen can be relied upon to produce a clear clean-cut line. If good ink is used and the pen is properly held, a ragged line indicates that the nibs are not exactly of the same length or that they are not sharp. A nib which is too short or too dull will leave *its* side of the line more or less broken. The best of pens become dull with use, and the draftsman should keep his pen sharp.

(2) Hold the pen almost perpendicularly, *thumb-screw out*, both nibs pressing evenly on the paper, and with the top inclined *slightly* in the direction in which it is moved. (The tend-

ency is to incline it too much.) Acquire a certain "touch" which brings the pen *lightly* but *firmly* in contact with the ruling edge. Endeavor to get into the easiest position in which to ink a line, even though it is necessary to walk around the drawing. In this way the ruling edge may be kept between the line and the body, so that in moving the pen the tendency is to draw it *against* the ruling edge rather than away from it. Thus the pen will cling to the edge without that excessive pressure which pushes the nibs together and causes the width of line to vary. Steady the hand by sliding on the end of the little finger. The pen should be moved from left to right and should be *drawn*, not *pushed*. See that there are no small particles of dust or lint in its path.

(3) Adjust the nibs of the pen to the width of line most often used in map-drawing, and make a fine scratch across the milled head of the adjusting-screw, so that by noting the position of this scratch the nibs can be set quickly to this width of line or to one either twice as wide or half as wide. When the pen is once set at the proper width avoid changing its nibs until all lines of that width are inked.

(4) Tack a cloth to the drawing-desk and clean the pen frequently when in use by forcing the cloth out through the nibs without disturbing the adjusting-screw. Keep the pen bright and clean when not in use, as ink left to dry in the pen will almost surely corrode the points.

(*a*) *To sharpen a pen* use a thin oil-stone. Screw the nibs of the pen close together, and draw the pen across the stone a few times precisely as if drawing lines, but changing the inclination of the pen from one side of the vertical to the other, so as to keep a rounded point. This will make the nibs of equal length but *dull*. Unscrew the nibs and sharpen each of them separately by rubbing its *outer* side on the stone with a rotary motion, as if sharpening a knife, taking care to hold the pen at a small angle with the horizontal—almost flat. The burr on the inside of the nibs may be removed by a stroke or two on the stone, or with a flat file.

477. Use of Dividers. Dividers are used chiefly for dividing a line into equal parts and for transferring distances from one map to another, or from one part of a map to another part of the same map. *They should not be used for transferring distances from scale to paper*—a method both slow and inaccurate. Whenever possible use the scale in preference to the dividers.

Proportional dividers are used to transfer measurements to an enlarged or reduced scale. Thus if the measurements are to be reduced one third, the dividers are adjusted so that any distance included between one pair of points is always one third of the distance included between the pair of points at the other end of the dividers.

478. Use of the Compasses. (1) The leads that come with compasses are often too soft for accurate work. Cut off two inches or so of a 6-H pencil, take out the lead, sharpen it to a fine cone-shaped point, and keep it sharp by rubbing it frequently on a file or sand-paper.

(2) Adjust the pivot-needle so that it will be right for the pen and do not disturb it thereafter, but adjust the lead to the pivot-needle. The shoulder of the needle-point will then be at the end of the pen-point or the pencil-point when the compass-legs are together, and the pencil alone will need readjustment from time to time as it wears off.

(3) Bend the legs of the compasses until each is perpendicular to the paper when the arc is drawn, especially in inking, for in no other way can the nibs of the pen be made to bear evenly on the paper.

(4) Guide the pivot-needle to place with a finger of the left hand, be sure it is set before starting the arc, lean the compasses a little in the direction of revolution, let the handle roll between the thumb and forefinger, ink the circle with one continuous motion, and stop the pen at the end of one revolution lest the line be made uneven by further inking.

(5) Use bow-compasses for very small circles, the lengthening bar for large circles, and beam-compasses for circles too large to be drawn with ordinary compasses.

(6) Note that the directions for filling, cleaning, and sharpening the ruling-pen apply to the compass-pen also.

479. Use of the Curve-ruler. (1) It is assumed that points have been plotted close enough together to determine the curve completely. First draw the curve in pencil, using a hair-line and noting which portions of the curve-ruler are used. Ink in small portions of the curve, keeping the blades of the ruling-pen tangent to the curve by turning the handle; as the curve-ruler will coincide with the pencil outline for a short distance only, great care is necessary to make the different sections join well. To insure a smooth curve it is well to let the edge of the ruler coincide with a small portion of the curve beyond the points where any particular section is begun or stopped.

In inking narrow ellipses, parabolas, and similar curves with a sharp turn, the common difficulty is to avoid a slight angular break in the curve at the turn. The part of the ruler used for one side of the bend should be such that if a line were continued it would nearly coincide with the curve for a short distance the other side of the bend, so that when the ruler is reversed for the curve on the other half of the turn the angular break referred to should not occur. A *small* portion of a narrow turn can usually be drawn better with the bow-compasses than with the curve-ruler.

Flexible curves which can be adjusted to any curved line, and hard-rubber splines held in place by weights, are useful for inking curves, especially irregular lines and those of gentle curvature. These curves are sold by dealers in drawing instruments.

480. The Use of the Pantograph. The pantograph is an instrument for copying drawings to the same, a larger, or a smaller scale. The theory is based on the following proposition: If any parallelogram is jointed at the corners, as *A*, *C*, *D*, and *E* (Fig. 480), and the four sides (produced if necessary) are cut by a straight line, the four points thus obtained will continue to lie in a straight line no matter how much the angles of the parallelogram may be changed. Moreover, the distances between these points will remain in a constant ratio to each other.

In the pantograph, Fig. 480, two of the sides are cut by the straight line at their intersection *A*, while the other two are cut at *F* and *B* respectively. Hence if *F* is fixed and *A* is moved to any point as *A′*, the point *B* will move to a point *B′* in a straight line with *F* and *A′*. Moreover $FA:FB::FA':FB'$. Hence $AA':BB'::FA:FB$.

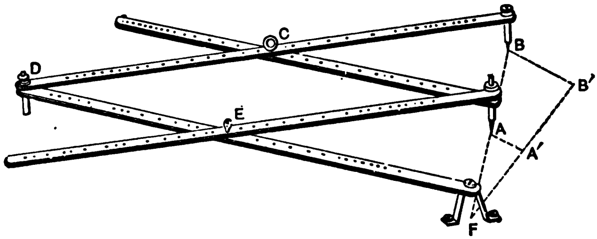

FIG. 480.

(*a*) *Illustration.* Suppose the parallelogram is adjusted at the points C and E so that $FB=2FA$. Then if a point is moved along any line AA' the pencil at B will move parallel to it along a line BB' twice the length of AA'. It matters not whether the line AA is straight, curved, or irregular, and hence if the point A is moved over any outline a pencil at B will reproduce a similar outline twice as large. Conversely, if a point at B is moved over any outline a pencil at A will reproduce a similar outline half as large. If A is made the fixed point and either F or B is moved over any outline the remaining point will reproduce a similar outline of the same size, but in an inverted position.

(*b*) *To set the pantograph.* (1) If the original drawing is to be enlarged, put the pencil at B and the tracing-point at A, and, *vice versa,* if the drawing is to be reduced, put the pencil at A and the tracing-point at B. (2) Whatever the setting, remember that the portion $ACDE$ must form a parallelogram and that F, A, and B must lie in the same straight line. (3) Various pantographs have different systems of marking the arms for purposes of setting. The best test, however, is to measure the distances FA and FB. Thus to enlarge three times, FB must equal $3FA$; to enlarge $1\frac{1}{2}$ times, $FB=1\frac{1}{2}FA$; to reduce $1\frac{3}{4}$ times, $FB=1\frac{3}{4}FA$, and so on. (4) To reproduce exact size, make A the fixed point, and $FA=AB$. The pencil may then be put at either F or B.

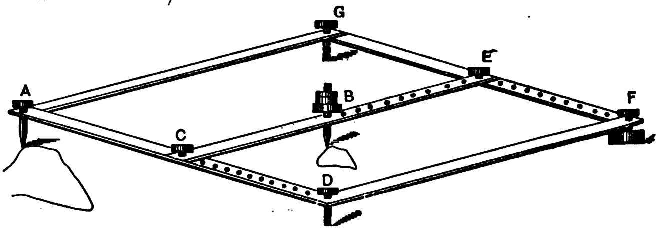

Fig. 480 (*c*).

(*c*) Another form of pantograph is shown in Fig. 480 (*c*). Two sides of the parallelogram $CDFE$ are cut by the straight line at A and B, while the other two sides are cut at F. These three points, therefore, are always in the same straight line and may be used exactly as the three corresponding points of the preceding form are used. The portions EG and GA serve simply to stiffen the arm CA.

(*d*) *Remark.* In both of the forms shown one of the three working points is at the intersection of two sides of the parallelogram. This is by no means essential so long as the three working points lie in a straight line at the intersection of at least three sides of the jointed parallelogram. It is evident therefore that there may be an indefinite number of different forms of the pantograph. The two shown are inexpensive and are not intended for accurate work. To attain any considerable degree of accuracy one of the expensive metal pantographs must be used.

CHAPTER XXXVII

DRAFTING-ROOM METHODS *

In this chapter general directions and suggestions are given for penciling and inking, for mixing inks, for laying off measurements to scale, for section-lining, for tinting, for tracing, and for making blue-prints.

481. To Fasten the Paper to the Board. Insert a tack in one corner, make the paper square with the board by means of the T-square, stretch it *diagonally* across to the other corner and insert a tack; stretch the paper diagonally in the other direction and insert tacks. It is not essential that the paper should be square with the board, but take pains to stretch it flat and smooth. In large sheets it will probably be necessary to put additional tacks along the edges. Press the tacks down until the heads are flush with the paper, so that the T-square can slide over them; if one should interfere with the work at any time, it may be temporarily removed.

(*a*) *Note.* In certain kinds of work the best results can be obtained only by stretching the paper while damp. Moisten the whole sheet with the exception of a half-inch border; secure this dry border to the board with mucilage, beginning at the centers of opposite edges and leaving the corners until last; use a sponge in smoothing the paper, working from the center out, and see that the mucilage is set before the body of the paper dries, so that the latter may be stretched uniformly by its own contraction. Cut the paper from the board when the map is finished, following the edges around successively in order.

If possible keep the paper in flat sheets. If kept in rolls it is more difficult to make it lie smoothly on the board.

482. Precautions to Insure Neatness. (1) Wipe the triangles and T-square free from dust before beginning work—occasionally the triangles should be washed. (2) Keep the paper clean by frequently applying a brush or a cloth—after the eraser has been used never proceed with the work until the leavings have been brushed from the surface of the paper. (3) After sharpening a pencil on sandpaper wipe the lead clean with a cloth—keep the sandpaper away from the drawing. (4) Never use a pencil soft enough to rub or blur.

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* This chapter is taken largely from a similar chapter in the author's "An Introductory Course in Mechanical Drawing" (American Book Co.).

483. Penciling. (1) *Use a hard pencil and draw hair-lines.* (2) Draw accurately in pencil, for accuracy is seldom, if ever, increased in the inking in. (3) Do not try to stop pencil lines at exactly the right place, for just as much care is required to make the ink lines stop where they should, whether the pencil lines do or not. It saves time and usually makes intersections and corners more definite to let the pencil lines overrun *slightly*, the projecting ends being erased *after the whole drawing has been inked.* Likewise draw a pencil line a little longer than the distance which is to be marked off on it. (4) It is often better not to draw a construction line throughout its entire length. For example, to find where two lines intersect, draw an inch or so of one line near the estimated point of intersection, and simply cross it with the other. In drawing lines to plot corners of houses or other details the approximate positions of points may be estimated and only so much of each line drawn as is really necessary. Many similar cases occur where time would be wasted and unnecessary erasing caused by drawing entire lines.

484. Inking. (1) As a rule, do not begin to ink until the map is practically completed in pencil. (2) Make the lines wide enough to be clear and distinct—the tendency with beginners is to set the nibs of the pen too close together, making the lines too fine and often ragged. Keep a *separate* piece of paper or tracing-cloth at hand for testing the pen to see if lines are of the right width. (3) Hold the pen nearly vertical, both nibs bearing evenly on the paper. (See p. 440.) (4) Keep the pen sharp and in good condition, so that it will begin to ink a line the instant it touches the paper; no pressure should be required. (5) Do not ink too close to the edge of the T-square or triangle, but place the ruling edge so that it does not quite coincide with the pencil line. When the line is inked, remove the T-square or triangle by drawing it *away* from the line to avoid blotting or blurring. (6) Get into an easy position for inking each line, keeping the ruling edge between the line and the body. (7) Never push a pen backward over a line. It is *difficult to* patch up a ragged line, and it should not be necessary if the pen is in proper condition; occasionally it may be necessary to go over a line a second time, but the pen should be moved *in the same direction as before,* great care being taken not to increase the width of line. (8) Ink in circles and arcs of circles first, as it is easier to draw straight lines tangent to circles than to draw circles tangent to straight lines. (9) Ink in *top* or *left-hand* lines first and work from the top down or from left to right to avoid waiting for lines to dry. In inking in small details, place one triangle so that the lines to be inked lie within the open space in the center; a second triangle can then be laid across the first and used as a ruler in any direction without blurring wet lines. (10) When several lines meet in a point, if possible ink *from* and not *towards* the point, otherwise too much ink will gather at the intersection of the lines. Allow one line to dry before inking another. The same precautions are necessary in inking acute angles. (11) In inking wide lines, as, for example, a heavy border, draw several parallel lines of medium width about their own thickness apart and fill in between with another set of parallel lines after the first are dry. This is better than drawing two outside lines and filling in between all at one time—a method that often leaves a large quantity of ink which warps the paper and takes a long time to dry. (12) Finally, while inking keep the surface of the paper clean, watch for particles of dust or lint in the path of the pen, and clean the pen frequently.

(*a*) *To mix India-ink:* Many draftsmen prefer to mix their own ink from Chinese stick-ink when very fine and sharp lines are required. This is done as follows: Place as little water in the saucer as will suffice for the amount of ink required. Rub the end of the stick on the bottom of the saucer with a rotary motion until the mixture is of the desired density. The liquid will appear black before it really is; to get it just right test it in the inking-pen—it should flow readily and dry quickly; the resulting line should be jet-black, and not easily erased or blurred when dry. If the line fades as it dries add more ink to the mixture from the stick. If it lacks the other desired properties try another make of ink. Chinese inks vary in quality, but it does not follow that the expensive kinds are the best. Try different sticks until one is found which is satisfactory. Wipe this dry after using to prevent it from crumbling, and it will last for a long time. Observe the following precautions: Clean the saucer before using; avoid dust or undissolved particles of ink in the mixture—they clog the pen; keep the mixture covered when not in use.

485. Erasing. (1) Avoid erasing pencil lines until the map is inked. If the eraser must be used, as, for example, to correct the pencil drawing, brush the surface of the paper *clean* before doing anything else. (2) If the eraser does not of itself wear off fast enough to keep clean, rub it occasionally on the drawing-board. (3) Avoid erasing *across* ink lines, rub in between. Much erasing with the pencil-rubber will deaden any ink line, destroying the sharp black effect. (4) In erasing ink lines use an ink-eraser, but do not press too heavily on the paper, as it injures the surface for further inking. For the same reason a knife should be used sparingly, though it is useful for taking out short portions of a line to make it "dashed" when it has been inked in full by mistake, or for removing the surface of a blot before applying the eraser. (5) If the surface of the paper has been injured in erasing, rub briskly with a clean hard substance until the paper becomes "polished" and ready for the ink. (6) To erase part of a drawing and leave adjacent portions untouched, cover the part not to be erased with a piece of stiff paper or a triangle. A flat piece of celluloid or cardboard with a narrow slit in it makes an excellent erasing-shield for portions of lines, the rubber being applied through the slit. (7) A sponge rubber or crumbs of wheat bread can be used to clean the drawing when it is finished. (8) For erasing and cleaning tracings, see (12), p. 452.

486. Laying Off Measurements to Scale. (1) Use a needle for pricking off distances. A handle can be easily made of wood or sealing-wax. Make prick-marks small, and draw free-hand circles around them, if necessary, to keep track of the points. (2) Get the eye opposite the mark on the scale before pricking the point. (3) Do not lay off distances with the compasses or dividers when the scale can be used. (4) Avoid arithmetical work; note what the smallest division on the scale represents, and read directly from the scale. (See p. 440.) (5) In laying off several successive distances along a line, set the scale once for all instead of moving the zero-point up each time to the end of a space in order to lay off the next space. In the latter method an error in a single space affects all succeeding spaces, and thus errors will accumulate. For this reason it is better to adopt the system of plus distances in field work. (See note, p. 139.) (6) Ordinarily it is not necessary to plot a point nearer than $\frac{1}{100}$ in. Hence if the scale is 100 ft. to the inch, plot to the nearest half foot; 200 ft. to the inch, plot to the nearest foot, and so on. If the scale is 20 or 30 ft. to the inch, by using the "40" or "60" side the quarter of a foot may be more easily estimated, and thus distances plotted to the *nearest eighth* of a foot. (7) It is more accurate to mark off the radius of a circle on a straight line each side of a point, and open the compasses until the circumference of the circle passes through the extreme points, than to take the radius directly from the scale. (8) Form the habit of frequently checking measurements by the eye—large errors may be detected usually by simple inspection. For small errors apply the scale a second time where there is the least doubt of accuracy. Other ways of applying checks should suggest themselves to one familiar with similar checks used in field work. (See p. 494.) (9) A common mistake is to use one side of a triangular scale when intending to use another. A "scale-guard", costing but a few cents, will keep the scale right side up and help to avoid this common error.

(*a*) *Method of laying off plus stations.* No subtraction is necessary. Suppose a station already plotted is 87+20 and it is desired to lay off the distance to Sta. 90+40, using a scale of 1 in. = 100 ft. Let the zero of the scale represent Sta. 87, and set the mark on the scale which represents 20 ft. from zero at Sta. 87+20 on the paper; then Sta. 88 is at the first inch, Sta. 89 at the second inch, Sta. 90 at the third inch, and 40 ft. beyond the third inch is Sta. 90+40.

A similar method may be used for any scale, although the 100-ft. stations will not fall on the inch-marks to any other scale. Thus if 1 in. = 200 ft., the 100-ft. stations fall at the half-inch marks. If 1 in. = 30 ft., Sta. 88 in the above illustration would fall at the point on the 30 scale marked 10 (see p. 440), Sta. 89 at 20, and Sta. 90 at 30.

487. Section-lining. (1) As a rule draw the section-lines at 45° and from $\frac{1}{16}$ in. to $\frac{1}{8}$ in. apart—the larger the area covered the farther apart the lines. (2) Make the section-lines finer than ordinary lines, usually about as fine as the pen will draw. Ink slightly thinned best serves the purpose. The common tendency is to make section-lines too heavy and too close together. (3) Do not draw the lines in pencil. A draftsman should be able to draw the lines in ink, making the distances apart equal by the eye alone, but the use of one of the standard section-liners lessens the strain on the eyes and is a surer method of securing a uniform appearance.

488. Tinting. (1) Water-colors are used in tinting maps. To mix the tint, place as much water in the saucer as will suffice for the amount of tint required. Transfer tint from the cake to the water with a brush, or rub the cake on the finger-end held in the water until the mixture is of the required density

Note. Use a camel-hair or sable brush similar to Keuffel and Esser's No. 3121–14. A nest of saucers for mixing different tints will prove convenient.

(2) The surface to be tinted must be clean. Avoid as far as possible all pencil lines within the area to be tinted: if drawn and not erased they can be seen through the tint; if they are erased the surface of the paper is often injured and a smooth, even wash cannot be laid on. It is well to tint before inking; if the drawing is inked first, water-proof ink must be used. The paper, of course, should be stretched flat and tight on the board—if necessary the edges may be glued (see p. 445).

(3) Raise the rear of the board slightly so that the surface will be sloping—if the top of the drawing-table cannot be inclined, block up the board. Fill the brush from the *surface* of the tint to avoid specks in the bottom of the saucer. Small particles of coloring-matter transferred to the paper will dissolve and leave small blots. Apply the brush moderately full of tint to the upper left-hand corner of the area and draw towards the right. This should leave a "pool" of tint extending across the area. This pool should contain enough tint so that it will almost but not quite run down the paper of itself. The secret of success is to *coax* this pool down the paper, keeping it moving constantly by applying the brush back and forth from side to side, not allowing the pool to stand in one place longer than in another. The pool must be kept full by adding tint from time to time with the brush. The tint *must not be painted on;* it is not even necessary to touch the brush to the paper. The whole operation must be done rapidly; it is better to let the brush overrun a little *outside* the outline than to spend so much time on the edges that tint on the interior soaks in or dries in streaks. The tint outside the boundary-line can be removed *when thoroughly dry* by covering the portion not to be erased with a shield and using a pencil-eraser. In laying on the wash do not go over the same place twice to "touch it up"; it will usually make it worse. When the pool reaches the bottom of the area, squeeze the brush comparatively dry, and use it like a sponge for taking up the surplus tint, working rapidly and drawing the brush frequently between the finger and thumb to discharge the tint. The whole surface should now have a

uniform flat tint, free from streaks. (4) Better results may often be obtained by first going over the surface with clean water exactly as in tinting. When the surface, held towards the light, ceases to glisten, begin to lay on the tint. The work can be done a little more leisurely and carefully than if the surface were dry, since the tint is not absorbed so quickly by the paper and therefore dries more slowly and evenly. If, on the other hand, the paper is too wet the tint will run. (5) If a deep or very dark tint is desired, it is better to put on several successive layers of a lighter shade, waiting each time for the preceding one to dry, than to attempt a single dark tint at first. The tendency is to make the colors on maps too deep and striking.

489. Tracing. (1) Draftsmen differ as to whether the tracing should be made on the rough or smooth side of the cloth. If much penciling is to be done directly on the cloth, the rough side is preferable. It is easier to draw clean-cut lines on the smooth side and it is also easier to erase them if necessary, though erasures are more noticeable than on the dull side. Tracings will not curl or roll up to such an extent if ink lines are on the dull side, but blue-prints will be slightly clearer if the lines are on the smooth side. When different portions of the map are to be colored with crayon pencils, the ink lines should be on the glazed side and the crayon rubbed on the back or unglazed side. (See p. 507.) (2) Tear off a strip about half an inch wide from each of the two finished edges of the tracing-cloth and then pin it down, stretched tight and smooth as possible. (3) Sprinkle the surface with powdered chalk, and rub it off with a cloth. This is necessary to make the tracing-cloth take the ink, especially if working on the glazed side. Specially prepared chalk in a box with perforated cover may be had from dealers, but dust scraped from ordinary school crayon answers the purpose. (4) Make sure that the ruling-pen is *sharp*—it is more important than ever that the pen should be in good condition. (See p. 441.) (5) Lines, letters, and figures should be made slightly heavier on tracing-cloth than on drawing-paper, in order that the blue-print may be clear. It is not unusual to find a beginner carefully putting on almost microscopic figures with a crow-quill pen. Such fine work practically disappears on the blue-print. *Figures above everything else should be bold and clear*, since they cannot be guessed at. (6) *Erasures* should be made very carefully, using a sharp knife or hard-rubber ink-eraser to start with and finishing with a soft-rubber pencil-eraser; too much erasing wears a hole through the cloth. After erasing, the smooth surface should be restored before inking by rubbing with soapstone, otherwise the ink is likely to spread or blot. Many expert draftsmen prefer pumice-powder for making erasures on the glazed side of the cloth. Dip the finger into the powder and rub over parts of the drawing which are to be erased, replacing the discolored powder at frequent intervals until a perfectly clean surface is obtained. Of course a rubber may be used in place of the finger. The advantages of this method are: It is quick, erasures are less noticeable, and the surface is left in good condition for inking. Many draftsmen claim that pumice-powder if vigorously applied is better than prepared chalk for preparing the surface of tracing-cloth to take sharp unbroken lines, and that in addition the gloss is so effectually removed that pencil lines for alterations may be readily drawn on the glazed side. (7) If a considerable area of a tracing needs to be altered, it is possible to cut out a portion of the cloth and insert a new piece in its place, gluing the corners or edges. This can be done very neatly. (8) Tracing-cloth is very susceptible to moisture, and if left on the board for more than a day is liable to become ruffled and uneven from expansion. All important lines, therefore, should be traced the same day, if possible. (9) If tracing-cloth is of poor quality, the ink is liable to strike through and spread; such cloth is useless for tracing. (10) Red ink and colored inks in general do not give pure-white lines on blue-prints, but they are used for dimension lines and other portions of a drawing which it is desirable to render less prominent. Never use anything but black ink for dimensions themselves or for other important data on a map. (11) Tracing-paper is often used, and is very satisfactory though less durable than cloth. Water-proof ink is best for drawing on either. (12) *To clean a tracing,* rub the surface with a cloth saturated with naphtha or gasoline (benzine). This will remove pencil marks and dirt without injuring the cloth or affecting ink lines if the ink is water-proof. It is an excellent method also of freshening the color of old and much-handled tracings.

Remark. Do not allow water to touch the tracing—a single drop will *make a spot* which will show in the blue-print. Ink lines may be entirely noved from spoiled or useless tracings, however, by soaking or boiling e cloth in water, leaving a clean white linen which is useful for many rposes in the office.

490. Blue-printing. (1) Trim as many sheets of blue-print per as there are prints required, each sheet slightly larger an the tracing, but not too large to go inside the frame. eep the sheets away from the light. (2) Turning the frame til the glass side is down, remove the back boards and the ds. (3) Put the tracing in the frame *with the ink lines next the glass.* (4) Place the blue-print paper *with the yellow or nsitized side next to the tracing.* (5) Insert the pad, taking ins to make the tracing lie flat, and insert the back boards.) Turn the frame over; make sure that the tracing is free om wrinkles, and that the ink lines are next to the glass—if ey are not words and numbers will read backward. (7) Ex- se squarely to the sun, making sure that no shadows fall ross the glass. (8) After exposure, remove the paper and ash thoroughly in water until the greenish solution entirely sappears. (9) Allow the paper to soak for at least ten min- es—twenty is better—and then hang it up to dry.

(*a*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) The length of time required for ex- sure varies for different kinds of blue-print paper. In a bright sun th quick paper from 20 to 30 seconds will suffice; for medium paper e to three minutes; for slow paper from three to six minutes. The fest way is to test a new roll by exposing small strips until the correct ne is ascertained. The same test should be made when it is cloudy, when the paper is not exposed to the direct sunlight, for of course the aker the light the longer the exposure. In an under-exposed print e blue will be too light; in an over-exposed print the blue will be too rk and the lines will appear bluish instead of pure white. (2) To get a od print it is important to keep hairs and specks from being reproduced. e stray hairs from the felt should be carefully dusted from the glass. e paper and the tracing should be in perfect contact, pressed smooth d flat against the glass. If wrinkles appear when the frame is rned over, take the back boards out and fix the tracing-cloth. Some- nes the trouble is caused by too weak or too short springs on the back ards or by too thin a pad between the back boards and the paper. (3) ue-print paper may be exposed to the light in an ordinary room for veral minutes without being affected, but it should not be subjected to rong light through a window. It is safer, especially with very sensitive pers, to pull the window-shade down and work in subdued light while acing the paper in the frame. (4) In washing the print make sure at it is completely immersed, and move it back and forth or splash water er it so that the chemicals will be removed from all parts of the paper quickly as possible. (5) Keep the tracing where no water can spatter it, and do not handle it with moist fingers. A drop of moisture on e cloth will make a spot which cannot be taken out, and which will ow in every subsequent print. (6) Keep blue-print paper in a dark y place until wanted for use; it must be fresh to get the best results; th old paper the lines will be gray instead of white. (7) Various white- k mixtures and bleaching solutions are used for making corrections on ue-prints; a solution of quicklime and water, well shaken, is fairly tisfactory. White lines may also be obtained by using Chinese white ater-color, and red lines by using scarlet-vermilion water-color (see 537 (*a*), 507). To obliterate white lines or figures go over them with a blue per-

Note. Print-frames can be purchased from dealers in engineers' supplies. Spring clips like Keuffel and Esser's No. 249–3 are useful for hanging up prints.

(*b*) *To prepare blue-print paper.* Prepared paper for blue-prints can be purchased in rolls of different widths at such a low price and of such excellent quality that it hardly pays to prepare it for oneself, unless a large quantity is required. If it is desirable, however, to make it, the chemicals may be used in the following proportions:

1 oz. (weight) prussiate of potash in 5 oz. water;
1 oz. (weight) citrate of iron and ammonia in 5 oz. water.

These two solutions may be prepared separately in the light, but they should be mixed (in equal parts) in subdued light or in a darkened room. Apply an even coating to one side of hard white paper with a soft sponge or a broad thin brush and hang the paper up to dry. The proportions of the chemicals in the blue-print mixture may be varied considerably without any effect except to change the time required for exposure; the larger the proportion of citrate of iron and ammonia the quicker the paper.

Blue-print cloth may be prepared in the same way as blue-print paper.

491. *Brown solar paper* is a process paper for making positive prints, i.e., dark lines on a white background. The process is similar to blue-printing, except that the tracing is used to print a negative on the solar paper, and this negative is used to make positive prints on either solar or blue-print paper.

(*a*) *To make the negative* place the tracing in the frame with the ink lines *against* the process-paper instead of against the glass. Expose until the paper which projects from underneath the tracing is a dark tan color; this will take from 2 to 5 minutes in bright sunlight in summer, nearly twice as long in winter. Wash for at least 5 minutes in clear water and then immerse in a fixing-bath composed of 2 oz. of hyposulphite of soda to one gallon of water. The negative should be left in the bath just long enough for the lines to become white and the background a dark brown; if left too long it may become mottled. Some prefer to apply the fixing solution with a brush, especially if only a few prints are desired. After the negative is fixed it must be washed thoroughly to avoid "hypo" stains; let the print soak in clean water for at least 20 minutes—running water is desirable though by no means essential. Hang the negative up, and when it is practically dry, roll it tightly on a small round stick (such as comes in a roll of tracing-cloth), so that the paper negative will be smooth for printing purposes. Any number of prints can now be made from this negative, while the tracing can be filed away and kept in good condition, one advantage of this process. If a large number of positive prints are required more than one negative can be made, so that several positives can be printed at the same time, another advantage.

(*b*) *To make positive prints* place the negative in the frame with the brown side next to the sensitized side of the printing-paper, not against the glass. To make blue-prints proceed exactly as outlined in Art. 490, except that the negative is used in place of the tracing, the result being blue lines on a white background. By using solar paper instead of blue-print paper, brown lines on a white background may be obtained, but these prints must be treated with a fixing solution as explained above. In either case corrections in pencil or ink can be made on the white background, another advantage as compared with ordinary blue-process paper. Corrections on the negative itself may be made by blocking out unnecessary lines with black ink or by inserting white lines by means of a bleaching solution furnished by the maker.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

METHODS OF PLOTTING ANGLES

Five methods of plotting angles are given in this chapter. The use of these methods in plotting maps is explained more fully in the next chapter.

492. Five Methods of Plotting Angles. (1) By the *protractor.* (2) By the *tangent* of the angle. (3) By the *cosine and sine* of the angle. (4) By the *chord* of the angle. (5) By *latitudes* and *departures* or *coördinates.*

493. The Protractor Method. There are various forms of protractors in common use. With the ordinary form, angles are laid off as follows: (1) Place the center of the protractor exactly at the point which is to be the apex of the required angle, and at the same time make the zero-point fall on the given line so that the line from the center of the protractor to the zero-point will coincide with one side of the required angle. (2) To get the other side, follow around the circular edge of the protractor the required number of degrees and minutes from zero, and make a fine dot. (3) Draw a line through this dot to the apex. If there are several angles to be laid off from the same line, make all the dots, if possible, before removing the protractor to draw the lines.

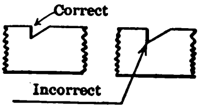

Fig. 493 (*a*).

(*a*) *Practical Hints.* (1) Make sure of the *exact center* of the protractor once for all, by means of the following test. With a triangle and T-square or with hair dividers construct on paper two intersecting lines exactly perpendicular to each other. Place the protractor so that the 0° and the 180° are on one line and the 90° on the other. Observe carefully what point of the protractor coincides with the intersection of the two lines. This test should always be made when using any protractor for the first time. In some of the semicircular protractors the center is marked by a nick, the bottom of which is often mistaken for the center. The correct and incorrect points are shown in Fig. 493 (*a*).

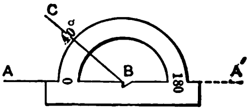

Fig. 493 (*b*).

(2) Accuracy depends largely on the correct centering of the protractor. Thus if in Fig. 493 (*b*) an angle is to be laid off at *B* from a line *AB*, produce *AB* so that the 180° mark can be used in centering the protractor.

(3) On most protractors there are two rows of numbers, the second increasing from 0° to 180° counter-clockwise for use in laying off angles to the left.

(4) There are three methods of laying off an angle greater than 180°, viz.: 1. Subtract 180° from the angle, lay off the result in the usual manner, and produce the line thus obtained through the center. For example, to plot 220°, mark off 40° clockwise, as shown in Fig. 493 (*b*), and produce the line thus obtained through *B*. 2. Subtract 180° from the angle, place the protractor on the opposite side of the line, and, considering 180° of the angle to have been plotted by simply producing the given line, plot the remainder with the protractor. 3. Invert the protractor as in the preceding method, but plot 360° minus the angle backward. This last method involves subtracting degrees *and minutes*, and hence mistakes are more likely to occur than if either of the first two methods are used.

(*b*) *Remark.* The ordinary protractor is seldom divided more finely than quarter degrees, and hence anything less than 15 minutes must be estimated. Some of the expensive vernier protractors read to minutes, but the difficulty in plotting to such a degree of precision is in properly centering the protractor. Moreover, unless the circular arc on the protractor is large, errors are likely to occur which render it nearly impossible to plot to minutes with any certainty.

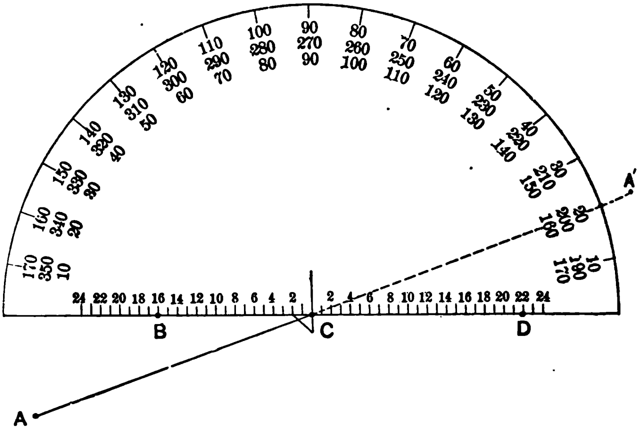

Fig. 493 (*c*).

(*c*) Another form of protractor is shown, much reduced in size, in Fig. 493 (*c*). (On an actual protractor the circle is subdivided to degrees and quarter degrees, but, on account of the small size of the cut, these subdivisions are not shown in the figure.) There are similar protractors on the market, but many draftsmen prefer to make their own as follows: (1) Purchase a *full circle* Bristol board protractor about 14″ in diameter. Rule lines between 0° and 180°, and between 90° and 270°, thus getting the exact center. (2) Along the first of these lines construct a scale 1″ = 50 ft., or 1″ = 40 ft., or whatever scale is to be used in plotting. The zero of the scale is at *the center of* the protractor, the numbers increasing outward

in either direction. (3) Number the ten-degree marks as shown in the figure. (4) Cut the circular protractor in two parts along the line from 0° to 180°, leaving, however, a small V-shaped point about $\frac{1}{4}''$ deep as shown in the figure. Better results may be obtained by cutting clear across with a machine such as all bookbinders have; then cut a small depression in the board, under the center, half-way through the back, and gum a thin piece of celluloid into it to form the V. The celluloid may be notched slightly to receive the needle about which the protractor revolves.

(*d*) *To use the paper protractor.* Let it be required to draw a line CB, 160 ft. long, and making an angle of 20° clockwise with CA. Produce AC to A', stick a very *fine* needle at the point C, bring the corner of the protractor (center) against the needle, turn the protractor until the 20° mark (outermost row) is on the line CA', and mark B opposite 160.

For an angle over 180° use the middle row. Thus the same setting as above gives ACD 200° *clockwise,* and a point D any distance, say 220 ft., from C.

If angles *counter-clockwise* up to 180° are desired, use the innermost row. Thus the same setting gives ACD *counter-clockwise* = 160°.

(*e*) *Remark.* This form of protractor is exceedingly useful in plotting details where a large number of angles and distances are laid off from the same point, for it serves both as protractor and scale. It is necessary, however, to construct a separate protractor for each different scale, but this is not a serious drawback, since in ordinary work less than half a dozen scales are commonly used.

Notice that the required side of the angle is always found along the straight edge of the protractor. The fact that this straight edge is used as a scale offsets the disadvantage of resetting the protractor for each angle.

(*f*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) Fine hair lines should be ruled for the scale. Do not cut the Bristol board in two until these lines have been penciled and inked, if it is desired to ink them. **Make the lengths of** marks correspond to those on a regular scale. (See p. 440.) (2) If only clockwise angles are to be plotted, it is better to omit the innermost row of numbers, otherwise print them in red ink to avoid confusion with the other two rows which may be printed in black. If counter-clockwise angles larger than 180° are to be plotted, a fourth row of numbers may be added. (3) Instead of sticking a needle into the paper it is better to construct a goose-neck device like that shown in Fig. 493 (*f*), the space between the needle-point and the weight being large enough to permit the protractor to revolve. The needle-point just touches the paper, and can be moved to any desired position by simply sliding the goose-neck. The device is easily made of brass tubing, filled with lead just over the center to increase its stability, and with a wooden plug to hold the needle.

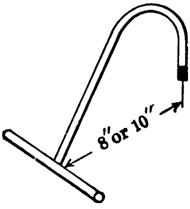

FIG. 493 (*f*).

494. The Tangent Method is a trigonometric method based upon the fact that in any right-angle triangle the *base* × *tangent* = *perpendicular.* The steps are as follows: (1) Mark off on the given side of the angle, beginning where the apex is to be, a base of any convenient length, say 8″ or 10″ or 12″, and at the end of the base erect a perpendicular extending toward the required side of the angle. (2) In a table of natural tangents look up the tangent of the required angle and multiply this tangent by the length of the base, 8″ or 10″ or 12″ as the case may be. (When there is room the base is usually made ten inches so that the multiplication can be performed by changing the decimal point one place to the right.) (3) Mark off the number of inches obtained from (2) on the perpendicular erected in (1) and join the point thus found with the apex.

(*a*) When an angle is much over 45° the tangent becomes too long and the complement of the angle is plotted instead of the angle itself. If the angle is a little over 90°, plot 90° of it by erecting a perpendicular and the balance by the tangent method, *using the perpendicular as a base.* In a similar manner any large angle can be plotted by laying off a portion of it either by erecting a perpendicular to the given line or by producing that line, so that the part of the angle remaining to be plotted by the tangent method is less than 45°.

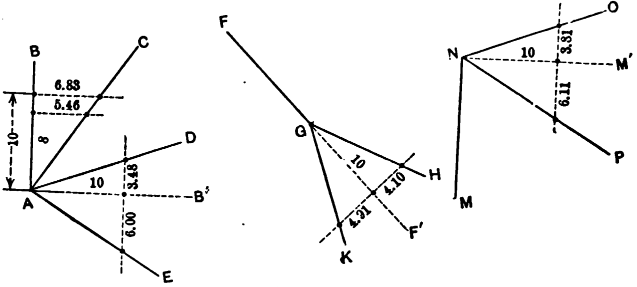

FIG. 494.

Required Angle	Angle Plotted	Tangent
BAC = 34° 20′	*BAC* = 34° 20′	0.683
BAD = 70° 49′	*B′AD* = 90° − 70° 49′ = 19° 11′	0.348
BAE = 120° 58′	*B′AE* = 120° 58′ − 90° = 30° 58′	0.600
FGH = 157° 42′	*F′GH* = 180° − 157° 42′ = 22° 18′	0.410
FGK = 206° 09′	*F′GK* = 206° 09′ − 180° = 26° 09′	0.491
MNO = 249° 08′	*M′NO* = 270° − 249° 08′ = 20° 52′	0.381
MNP = 301° 26′	*M′NP* = 301° 26′ − 270° = 31° 26′	0.611

The above examples indicate how the method is used. Notice that in every case except the first the angle actually plotted was not the required angle, but the *smallest* angle that could be found with the required side either by producing the given side or by erecting a line at right angles to it.

(*a*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) The accuracy of this method depends very largely upon the correct laying off of perpendiculars. If a triangle is used it should be tested for its right angle. (See p. 439.) In using the triangle to erect a perpendicular it is better to resort to one of the sliding methods (p. 439) than to depend on fitting two sides of one triangle to a 90° angle. A steel square, however, may be used in that way, and is preferable to a triangle, but it also should be tested.

(2) The inches laid off for the base and perpendiculars are of course *real* inches and not to any scale. As scales are not usually divided to hundredths of an inch, use the side with fiftieths. Thus in the first illustration 83 hundredths equals 41½ fiftieths.

(3) If there is not room for a 10″ base or its corresponding tangent, use a shorter base, say 5″ or 8″, *but be sure to use the corresponding length* for the perpendicular. Within reasonable limits, however, the longer the base the more accurate will be the angle, hence a 20″ base is sometimes used.

(4) After plotting an angle by the tangent method always check it roughly with the protractor.

(5) If an angle is known to be wrong and no mistake can be found in the work, plot the angle over again, using a *new* length of base and its corresponding length of perpendicular. In addition it may be well to plot from some other direction, i.e., plot the complement or supplement of the angle if possible, thus using an entirely different base line. This is usually equivalent to checking by measuring the cotangent.

(6) This same method can be used in the field for laying off angles with the tape. Measurements are then in feet instead of in inches.

495. The Cosine and Sine Method is practically a modification of the tangent method. The cosine of an angle is laid off as a base, and the sine as the perpendicular. The hypothenuse is then unity—a useful check.

Illustration. To plot 34° 20′. Cosine = 0.826, sine = 0.564. Lay off 8.26 inches as a base and 5.64 inches as a perpendicular. Check by seeing if the hypothenuse is exactly 10 inches.

Note. When an angle is much larger than 45° its complement or its supplement may be plotted as in the tangent method. Most of the practical suggestions given for the tangent method apply to this method also.

496. The Chord Method. In this method the angle is constructed by two intersecting arcs. The first arc is of any convenient radius, say 5″ or 8″ or 10″, and is described with the *vertex* of the required angle as a center. The length of the radius of the second arc must be equal to that chord of the given angle which corresponds to the radius of the first arc.

(*a*) *Illustration. At A to plot an angle of* 47° 8′ *clockwise from AB.* With *A* as a center describe an arc *CD* of any convenient radius, say 10″. The chord for 47° 8′ for a unit radius is 0.7996 (found by one of the methods given below). For 10″ the chord is 7.996″, or for practical purposes 8″ long. With *C* as a center and with a radius of 8″, describe a second arc *FG* intersecting the first at *D*, a point which determines the angle.

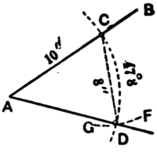

FIG. 496 (*a*).

(*b*) *To find the chord length.* Take from a table of chords the chord for the required angle for a *unit length* and multiply by the length of the radius of the first arc. If a table of chords is not at hand look up in a table of natural sines the sine of HALF the required angle and multiply by TWICE the length of the radius of the first arc. (For the chord of any arc is equal to the radius of that arc multiplied by twice the sine of half the subtended angle, or $\textit{chord} = \textit{radius} \times (2 \times \textit{sine}\ \tfrac{1}{2}\ \textit{angle}) = 2 \times \textit{radius} \times \textit{sine}\ \tfrac{1}{2}\ \textit{angle}$. Draw a figure showing this to be true.)

Illustration. In Fig. 496 (*a*) one half the required angle is 47° 8′ ÷ 2 = 23° 34′ natural sine of 23° 34′ = 0.39982, and 20 × .39982 = 7.9964 = length of chord. (8″ is near enough.)

(*c*) *Practical suggestions.* (1) The accuracy of the work depends upon the precision with which the arcs can be drawn. An arc of 10″ radius can be drawn with ordinary compasses if the lengthening bar is used, but it takes time to set the compasses at *exactly* 10″, and it is sometimes difficult to keep them there until the whole arc is completed. A better way is to keep beam compasses set at *exactly* 10″, and to use them only for drawing the *first* arc of each angle. Then, instead of describing a second arc, find the chord by trial with a scale; place the zero of the scale where one end of the chord must be, and knowing the length of the chord, fit the scale in place and thus find the point on the first arc where the other end of chord must be. If beam compasses are not at hand, use a straight stick with a needle at one end for a pivot, and a *very hard* lead at the other, sharpened to a *fine* point. Be sure that the distance between the needle and the point of the lead (which should be *exactly* 10″) cannot change while describing an arc. By exercising a little ingenuity beam compasses of this kind can be made with a device for adjusting the lead slightly to keep it exactly 10″ from the needle-point.

(2) If a radius of 5″ is used the natural sine of half the angle is multiplied by 2 × 5 = 10, which simply changes the decimal point. The objection to this, however, is that for accurate work the first arc should have a radius greater than 5″. If 8″ or 9″ or 12″ is used it is more convenient to multiply the sine by two and then by the radius 8″ or 9″ or 12″, as the case may be. When there is room, however, use a radius of 10″, multiply the sine by 2, and change the decimal point one place. If the fiftieths on the scale are used it is not necessary to multiply the sine of half the angle by two; simply change the decimal point *three* places, call the result fiftieths, and read directly from the scale, adding of course a cipher to the number printed on the scale.

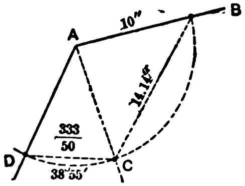

FIG. 496 (*c*).

Illustration. At A to plot an angle of 128° 55′ *clockwise from AB.* From *A* as a center describe an arc of 10″ radius. Plot 90° of the required angle by erecting the perpendicular *AC*. Half of the remaining angle is (128° 55′ − 90°) ÷ 2 = 19° 27.5′. The sine of 19° 27.5′ is 0.33312. Hence with the zero of the scale at *C* find the point *D* where the 333 mark (fiftieth) comes, i.e., the required chord is $0.333 \times 2 \times 10 = \frac{666}{100} = \frac{333}{50}$. (This is really 6.66″.)

(*d*) *Large angles.* The largest angle that can be laid off, using the ordinary scale, is 73° 46′, for the sine of half that angle is: sine of 36° 53′ = 0.60019, and hence the chord equals

600 fiftieths or the limit of a 12″ scale. For any angle between 73° 46′ and 90°, erect a perpendicular and plot the complement of the required angle. In a similar manner any angle, no matter how large, can be plotted by either erecting a perpendicular if the angle is nearest 90° or 270°, or by producing the original line if the angle is nearest 180°. See Fig. 494, p. 458, for parallel cases.

(*e*) *Erecting perpendiculars.* If two sides of a right triangle are each 10″ long, the hypothenuse is 14.142″ long, i.e., the chord of 90° is 1.4142. Hence, if desired, perpendiculars can be erected by the chord method, as indicated in Fig. 496 (*c*). Keep a straight edge with two fine scratches 14.14″ apart especially for that purpose. It is convenient to have these marks on the beam compass or on the straight stick used in place of the beam compass.

497. The Latitude and Departure Method consists in plotting points by coördinate distances corresponding to latitude and departure. While it is seldom used for laying off a single angle, it is of great value in plotting a series of connected lines, especially if they form a polygon, as, for example, the transit lines of a survey which closes. This method will be explained in detail in the next chapter.

498. Methods Compared. (1) *The ordinary protractor* should not be used for plotting lines much longer than the radius of the protractor, if more than medium accuracy is required. With the expensive vernier protractors angles can be laid off to the nearest minute, but ordinarily fifteen minutes is as close as the protractor can be read. The protractor is used for plotting short lines to relatively unimportant points, as, for example, in plotting the angles at a transit station to the corners of buildings, fences, and other points a short distance away. For the transit lines some other method is usually used unless a vernier protractor is at hand.

(2) *The tangent method,* (3) *the cosine and sine method,* and (4) *the chord method* are all good methods, and each has its advantages over the others. In the first two methods the difficulty lies in quickly and accurately erecting perpendiculars; in the chord method it lies in drawing arcs correctly and making their intersection perfectly definite. All three methods require the use of trigonometric tables, with the attending danger of blunders in looking up the values of functions.

(5) *Latitude and departure method.* See p. 476 for advantages and disadvantages.

499. The Three-point Problem. Given three points, A, B, and C, whose relative positions are determined by the two distances n and o and the *interior* angle M. Let N and O represent the values of the angles at P, a point to be plotted.

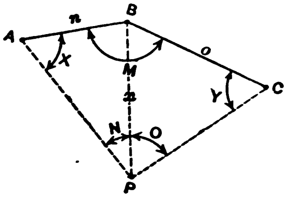

FIG. 499.

(*a*) *Graphic method.* (1) Plot the two angles N and O on tracing-cloth, making the lengths of the lines PA, PB, and PC indefinite. (2) Shift the tracing-cloth over the drawing until each of the three lines passes through the plotted position of the corresponding point. (3) Prick through the point P.

A three-arm protractor should be used in place of the tracing-cloth if there are many points to be located. Each arm is set to correspond to a line radiating from P.

(*b*) *Plane-table methods.* (See pp. 329 to 336.)

(*c*) *Algebraic method.* Let $R=X+Y=360°-(M+N+O)$ Then

$$x=\frac{n\sin X}{\sin N}=\frac{o\sin Y}{\sin O},$$

$$Y=R-X,$$

$$\sin Y=\sin R\cos X-\cos R\sin X,$$

$$\cot X=\cot R\left(\frac{n\sin O}{o\sin N\cos R}+1\right).$$

The angle Y may be found in a similar manner. Plotting these two angles, the lines AP and CP intersecting determine P.

(*d*) *Note.* The problem is indeterminate when A, B, C, and P are on the circumference of a circle, i.e., when $M+N+O=180°$. When $N+O=M$ or nearly, the solution is impossible.

CHAPTER XXXIX

METHODS OF PLOTTING TRAVERSES

For every method of running traverses explained in Chapter XII, p. 116, there is a corresponding method of plotting. Distances between stations are laid off to scale and angles or bearings are plotted by one of the methods given in the preceding chapter. The different steps for each method are outlined in this chapter, without entering upon the practical details of mapping. Such questions as the choice of scale, the general arrangement of the map, the accuracy required, and the best methods of plotting details are discussed in the next chapter.

500. Different Methods of Plotting Traverses, corresponding to the methods of running transit lines given on p. 119, are:

I. { 1. *Plotting each traverse line by a* DIRECT ANGLE,
2. *Plotting each traverse line by a* DEFLECTION ANGLE

II. { 3. *Plotting each traverse line by its* AZIMUTH,
4. *Plotting each traverse line by its* BEARING.

In addition there is a fifth method:

5. *Plotting traverses by* COÖRDINATES OR LATITUDES AND DEPARTURES.

In each of the first four methods the angle at each station may be plotted by means of the *protractor,* or by the *tangent method,* or by the *chord method,* or by the *cosine and sine method.*

501. Importance of Traverse Lines. Since the traverse lines form the basis of the whole map, they must be plotted with the greatest care, using fine hair lines. On a small scale map, say 1″ = 200 ft., a line drawn with a soft or poorly sharpened pencil may easily be from one to two feet wide measured to scale, hence use a 6-H pencil sharpened to a *fine* wedge, and a needle to prick the points.

Where a high degree of precision is required *an ordinary protractor should not be used for plotting traverse lines.* It is inconsistent to measure angles in the field to the nearest minute, and then to plot them with a protractor which reads only to half degrees, especially if the lines between stations on the map are more than, say, five inches long. Of course there are many cases where the protractor will give results consistent with the accuracy required, but its chief use is in plotting details, and in roughly checking angles plotted by some other method. Even with vernier protractors it is difficult to attain a high degree of precision, though angles can be plotted very rapidly with it, and much more accurately than with an ordinary protractor.

502. The Use of the Protractor in plotting direct angles, deflection angles, bearings, and azimuths requires no explanation in addition to that given on p. 455. The line from which the angle is plotted should always be extended beyond the station to aid in centering the protractor (see p. 455), and occasionally a line at right angles is drawn in order that the 90° mark on the protractor may be used for centering in addition to the 0° and 180° mark.

Remark. In studying the remainder of the chapter keep in mind the fact that wherever the tangent method or the chord method is used for plotting an angle, the protractor can be used also, provided a high degree of precision is not required. Likewise the cosine and sine method can be used if desired in place of the tangent method, but the two are so nearly alike that the former is not explained in this chapter.

503. Plotting Each Transit Line from the Preceding Transit Line. This method consists simply in plotting the angle at each station by the protractor method, by the tangent method, by the chord method, or by the cosine and sine method, the distance between stations being laid off with a scale. When the angle is a large one it may be necessary to plot its complement or supplement as explained on page 458.

In order to start the map some traverse line must be drawn from an assumed point, and its length laid off to scale. The direction in which it is drawn and the position of the assumed point depend upon the general arrangement of the entire map. (See p. 490 for directions for starting the map.)

(*a*) TANGENT METHOD

TABLE I

Angle	Value	Line	Length	Angle Plotted	Tangent
FAB	56° 44′	*AB*	404	90° − 56° 44′ = 33° 16′	0.6560
ABC	258° 30′	*BC*	312	270° − 258° 30′ = 11° 30′	0.2034
BCD	31° 56′	*CD*	550	31° 56′	0.6232
CDE	150° 36′	*DE*	386	180° − 150° 36′ = 29° 24′	0.5635
DEF	67° 48′	*EF*	407.8	90° − 67° 48′ = 22° 12′	0.4081
EFA	154° 26′	*FA*	454.2		

Illustration. Fig. 503 (*a*). Before beginning to plot, Table I was prepared; the first four columns were taken from the field notes, the fifth column gives the angles to be actually plotted, and the last column gives the corresponding *natural* tangents. Thus the draftsman has before him all the data necessary to plot the lines. In preparing the fifth column the fact was kept in mind that the tangent method is best adapted to plotting angles of 45° or less. (See p. 458.) Hence at *A* and *D complements* of the angles taken in the field were used, at *D* the *supplement*, at *B* 270 *minus the angle*, but at *C* the original angle was used, since it was less than 45°. In the original drawing from which the figure was reduced the work was as follows: Since no bearings were given, the line *AF* was assumed in any convenient direction and its length laid off to scale. A perpendicular at *A* was erected and the complement of *FAB* = 90° − 56° 44′ = 33° 16′ was plotted. Ten *real* inches were used as a base and from Table I 6.56″ was the length of the tangent. Thus a point on *AB* was found, *AB* drawn, and its length laid off to scale. The angle at *B* is nearly 270°, hence a perpendicular was erected at *B*. 270° − 258° 30′ = 11° 30′, and since 258° 30′ is *less* than 270° the angle 11° 30′ must be plotted backwards or counter-clockwise from the perpendicular. The dotted lines indicate how the tangent method was used for plotting the remaining angles. The plot closes if the last line passes through *F*, *and the distance EF scales correctly*. If another check is desired the angle at *F* may be tested by producing *EF* and measuring the perpendicular at a point 10″ from *F*. In this case the distance *EF* came out one foot too long to a scale of 1″ = 50′ 0″. The tangent measured 4.78″, which corresponds to 25° 32′, to 25° 33′, and to 25° 34′. The correct angle is 180° − 154° 26′ = 25° 34′.

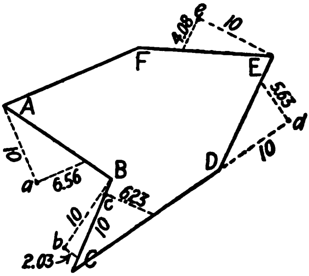

FIG. 503 (*a*).

Remark. As pointed out on p. 458, although any base may be used, 10″ is the most convenient length.

(*b*) CHORD METHOD

TABLE II

Angle	Value	Line	Length	Angle Plotted	Angle ÷ 2	Sine	Chord
FAB	56° 44′	*AB*	404	56° 44′	28° 22′	.4751	9.50
ABC	258° 30′	*BC*	312	11° 30′	5° 45′	.1001	2.00
BCD	31° 56′	*CD*	550	31° 56′	15° 58′	.2750	5.50
CDE	150° 36′	*DE*	386	29° 24′	14° 42′	.2538	5.08
DEF	67° 48′	*EF*	407.8	67° 48′	33° 54′	.5578	11.16
EFA	154° 26′	*FA*	454.2	25° 34′	12° 47′	.2213	4.43

Illustration. Before beginning to plot, Table II was prepared; the first four columns were taken from the field notes and the last four were added for purposes of plotting. In preparing the fifth column the fact was kept in mind that in the chord method it is more convenient to use angles less than 73° (p. 460). Thus at D the *supplement* of the angle taken in the field was used, while at B 270° *minus the angle* was the most convenient angle to plot. At A, C, and E the original angles are less than 73°. If a table of chords is at hand the sine column is unnecessary.

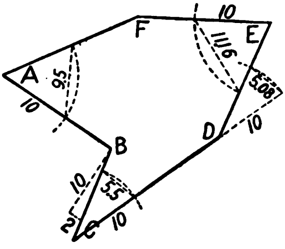

Fig. 503 (*b*).

The line AF was assumed to start with. An arc of 10″ radius described from A as a center, and the corresponding chord 9.5″ (from Table II), gave a point on AB. The distance to B was laid off to scale, a perpendicular at B was erected, the angle 11° 30′ (270° − 258° 30′, see Table II) was plotted, and the direction of BC was thus obtained. The dotted lines in the figure indicate how the arcs and chords were used in a similar way to plot the remaining angles. If the last line passes through F and *the distance* EF is correct, the plot closes. The angle at F can be measured if an additional check is desired. The distance EF came out a little less than 407 instead of 407.8 to a scale of 1″ = 50′ 0″. The chord measured 4.43, showing the angle to be correct.

Remark. Any radius may be used in the chord method, but 10″ is the most convenient length, especially when the fiftieths on the scale are used as suggested on page 460.

(*c*) *Checks.* Never lay off an angle by the tangent or chord method without checking it roughly with the protractor. When a traverse is plotted by direct angles an excellent check is to compute the bearings of all the lines, and at every fourth or fifth station measure the angle of bearing of the line that starts from that station. If the survey is a closed traverse, it is only necessary to check this angle roughly with the protractor, otherwise check it carefully by the tangent or chord method. (See p. 494 for additional directions for checking traverses.)

Illustration. Let the bearing of AB = S 55° 0′ E. The calculated bearing of DE would be N. 26° 02′ E. Draw a meridian at A making 55° 0′ with AB. Through D draw a parallel meridian, and see if the angle which it makes with DE is 26° 02′.

Remark. A check like the above is more necessary in a survey having a large number of stations.

504. Plotting by Deflection Angles. This method is a modification of the preceding method. It corresponds to the method of running transit lines given on page 120, and is used for lines which progress more or less in one direction, as in railway work. The deflection angle at each station is plotted by the protractor method, by the tangent method, or by the chord method, preferably the latter. A mistake to be avoided is that of plotting the angle on the wrong side of the transit line produced. As some angles are measured to the right and *some to the left,* this mistake is likely to occur.

(*a*) CHORD METHOD

TABLE III

k-	Deflection Angle							
t. Sta.	Right	Left	Line	Length	Ang. Plot.	Ang.÷2	Sine	Chord
			AB	210.1				
B	34° 18′		*BC*	255.6	34° 18′	17° 09′	.2948	5.90
C		64° 20′	*CD*	321.1	64° 20′	32° 10′	.5324	10.65
D	76° 48′		*DE*	342.8	13° 12′	6° 36′	.1149	2.30

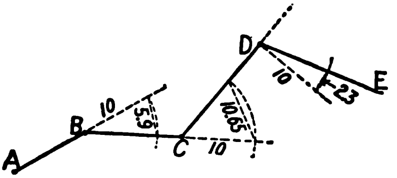

FIG. 504 (*a*).

llustration. The first six columns in Table III are the field notes. last four were added for purposes of plotting. Fig. 504 (*a*) studied in nection with these last four columns will illustrate the method of plot- when chords are used.

b) *Checks* are the same as those given for the preceding thod. As this method is used most often for surveys that not close, lines should be checked very carefully by calcued bearings at, say, every fourth-station.

505. Plotting by Bearings. This method consists in plotg each line by laying off its angle of bearing from a line umed as a north-and-south meridian. The protractor, the ord method, the tangent method, or the cosine and sin thod may be used for laying off the angle of bearing.

ote Except in compass surveying *the bearings laid off are always c ted bearings* found by the method explained in Chapter XXX. Som es these bearings are calculated from the *true* bearing of some travers , sometimes from the *magnetic* bearing. When no bearings are given bearing of some traverse line is assumed, and the corresponding bear- s of the others calculated. These bearings, though fictitious, will give true *relative* positions of the different stations.
ny adjustments of angles which may be necessary (see p. 478) should made before the bearings are calculated, and the adjusted values used in calculations.

1) There are two general methods of procedure. In the t, all bearings are plotted from the same line and afterwards nsferred. (2) In the second, lines parallel to the assumed ridian are drawn through all the stations, and the bearing of h traverse line is plotted from the meridian at the station m which the traverse line starts. In either method it is coniient to assume the meridian at right angles to the T-square, , a vertical line, with the north point at the top of the map.

Sometimes, however, it is desired to assume the meridian in some other position, thus making the east-and-west line oblique to the T-square. In such cases it is convenient to use a T-square with an adjustable head so that the edge of the blade may be made to concide with an east-and-west line when the head is in contact with the left-hand edge of the board. (See *Caution*, p. 473.)

The first method (plotting lines from the same meridian) will be explained in detail, both for the tangent and the chord method of plotting bearings.

(*a*) TANGENT METHOD OF PLOTTING BEARINGS

Construct near the center of the paper a 20″ square and subdivide it into four 10″ squares. This must be done with accuracy, and the large and small squares tested by measuring the diagonals. There is no use in proceeding farther until the diagonals of the 20″ square are equal, the sides each 20″ long, and the diagonals of all the 10″ squares equal to each other. Assuming the vertical line through the center of the 20″ square as a north-and-south line, each of the 10″ squares will correspond to one of the four quadrants of bearing, N.E., S.E., S.W., and N.W. Plot the bearing of each line of the survey by measuring ten times the natural tangent of the bearing (or if the bearing is over 45°, the complement of the bearing) along a side of that 10″ square which corresponds to the quadrant of bearing. The *direction* of each line of the survey thus obtained may be transferred to its proper place in the plot by any of the accurate methods of drawing one line parallel to another (p. 439).

Remark. Some other length than 20″ could be used for the side of the large square, but, as pointed out on page 458, 10″ is the most convenient base by which to multiply the natural tangent.

Illustration. In Fig. 505 (*a*) the transit lines of page 465 are plotted from bearings using the tangent method. The bearing of *AB* if not known may be assumed as any convenient bearing, and the bearings of the other lines calculated from the transit angles (Chap. XXX); but in that case while the outline will be correct, none of the transit lines will be in its really correct position with respect to a north-and-south line. In the illustration, however, the bearing of *AB* was known to be S. 55° E. The following table was prepared for plotting.

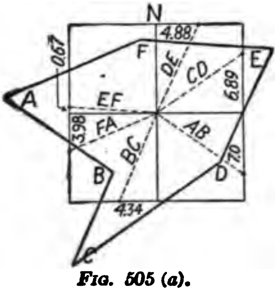

***Fig.* 505 (*a*).**

TABLE IV

Line	Bearing	Length	Angle Plotted	Tangent
AB	S. 55° 0′ E.	404	E. 35° 0′ S.	.7002
BC	S. 23° 30′ W.	312	S. 23° 30′ W.	.4348
CD	N. 55° 26′ E.	550	E. 34° 34′ N.	.6890
DE	N. 26° 02′ E.	386	N. 26° 02′ E.	.4884
EF	N. 86° 10′ W.	407.8	W. 3° 50′ N.	.0670
FA	S. 68° 16′ W.	454.2	W. 21° 44′ S.	.3986

The letters in the fourth column tell how to lay off the tangent. Thus E. 34° 34′ N. means to measure the corresponding tangent (0.689) from E. towards N.

Each dotted line in Fig. 505 (*a*) was determined by the natural tangent of the corresponding angle in the fourth column of the table. Thus *AB* is E. 35° S., hence measure down 7.0″ along the right-hand side of the 20″ square, beginning at the middle point, which represents the east. *BC* is S. 23° 30′ W., hence from the middle of the lower side measure 4.34 (or better 4.35) westward. In this manner the *directions* of all the lines in the survey are ascertained.

Each line in the perimeter of the polygon may now be drawn parallel to the corresponding dotted line. A starting-point *A* having been assumed (see p. 491), *AB* was drawn parallel to the corresponding line in the S.E. quadrant, and 404 feet to scale gave *B*. Through *B*, *BC* was drawn parallel to the corresponding line in the S.W. quadrant, and 312 feet to scale gave *C*. The final position of each transit line was determined in a similar manner.

(*b*) *A modified method of plotting bearings by natural tangents* is to draw near the center of the paper a 10″ square instead of a 20″ square, using the right-hand side for a north-and-south line when a bearing is N.W. or S.W. and the left-hand side of the square for a north-and-south line when a bearing is N.E. or S.E. Thus one square is made to answer for all four quadrants of bearing.

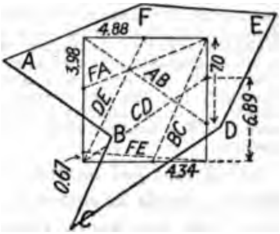

FIG. 505 (*b*).

(*c*) CHORD METHOD OF PLOTTING BEARINGS

Proceed as follows: (1) Near the center of the paper draw a circle exactly 20″ in diameter. (2) Through its center draw a north-and-south line and an east-and-west line. (3) Make sure that these two lines are mutually perpendicular,—the four chords should be exactly equal to each other and each equal to 14.14″. (4) Prepare a table similar to that below. (5) Plot each line in its proper quadrant by using the chord value of its bearing. (6) Transfer each line in order to its proper position in the plot by any of the accurate methods of drawing one line parallel to another.

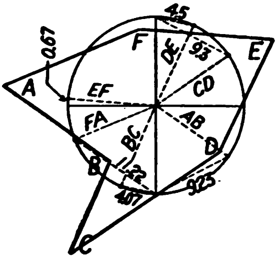

FIG. 505 (*c*).

Remark. A circle of some other diameter could be used, but 10″ is the most convenient radius, especially if the fiftieths on the scale are used as suggested on p. 460.

Illustration. In Fig. 505 (*c*) the same survey as plotted in the preceding examples is shown. If no bearings were taken in the field, one may be assumed for one of the lines and the bearings of the other lines calculated. In that case none of the lines will be in its correct position, but the outline of the figure will be correct, which in many cases is all that is wanted. In the illustration, however, *AB* was known to be S. 55° E. The following table was prepared for plotting.

TABLE V

Line	Bearing	Length	Angle Plotted	Angle ÷ 2	Sine	Chord
AB	S. 55° 0′ E.	404	S. 55° 0′ E.	27° 30′	.4617	9.23
BC	S. 23° 30′ W.	312	S. 23° 30′ W.	11° 45′	.2036	4.07
CD	N. 55° 26′ E.	550	N. 55° 26′ E.	27° 43′	.4651	9.30
DE	N. 26° 02′ E.	386	N. 26° 02′ E.	13° 01′	.2252	4.50
EF	N. 86° 10′ W.	407.8	W. 3° 50′ N.	1° 55′	.0334	0.67
FA	S. 68° 16′ W.	454.2	S. 68° 16′ W.	34° 08′	.5611	11.22

The dotted lines radiating from the center of the circle in Fig. 505 (*c*) were plotted by laying off the chords given in the last column of the table. Thus *AB* is S. 55° 0′ E., hence from the lower end of the vertical diameter lay off a chord easterly of 9.23″. *BC* is S. 23° 30′ W., hence lay off a chord from the same point westerly of 4.07″. In this manner the directions of all the lines in the survey were determined.

Each line in the perimeter of the polygon was then drawn parallel to the corresponding dotted line. A starting-point *A* having been assumed (see p. 491), *AB* was drawn parallel to the corresponding line in the S.E. quadrant, and 404 feet to scale gave *B*. Through *B*, *BC* was drawn parallel to the corresponding line in the S.W. quadrant, and 312 feet to scale gave *C*. The final position of each transit line was obtained in a similar manner.

(*d*) *A modified method of plotting bearings by chords* is shown in Fig. 505 (*d*). The four quadrants occupy the same space, otherwise the method is unchanged. This method may be used when a 20″ circle will not come within the limits of the paper and it is not desirable to use a radius of less than 10″. The dotted lines in the figure correspond to the transit lines in Fig. 505 (*c*).

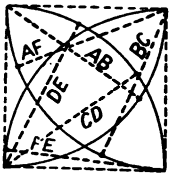

FIG. 505 (*d*).

(*e*) *A second method of plotting bearings by tangents or chords.* In this method instead of plotting the bearings of all the transit lines from *one* north-and-south line, the bearing of each line is plotted from a north-and-south line drawn through the station at the beginning of the line. Otherwise the method is the same *as the preceding* one. In this method errors are less likely to occur in drawing parallel lines, but more work is involved in the plotting.

Another method sometimes used for large maps is to draw a rectangle which shall include as much as possible of the map and at the same time be divisible into ten-inch squares. The bearing of a line starting from any station may then be laid off in the square nearest the station and afterward transferred to the station. If the outside rectangle is carefully checked and the squares are laid off entirely by measurement, the errors due to the use of T-square and triangles are avoided. (See *Caution*, p. 473.)

(*f*) *Checks.* The angle at each station should be checked roughly with the protractor, or if the survey is not a closed traverse, more accurately by the tangent or by the chord method. When lines have been plotted by bearings there is no check which, if applied at any station, will check all of the previous courses. This is one objection to this method of plotting, since if each angle must be checked by some accurate method, that method might as well be used to start with. The method of plotting by bearings is best suited, therefore, for closed traverses where it is sufficiently accurate to check angles with the protractor. (See p. 494 for additional directions for checking traverses.)

506. Plotting by Azimuths. The method is practically the same as that given for plotting bearings. The only difference is that the angle plotted at each station is the *azimuth* of the next line instead of the bearing. The checks are similar to those given above.

507. Plotting Transit Lines by Latitudes and Departures. This method consists in selecting one of the stations as a reference-point (origin) and plotting each of the other stations by its total distance *east* or *west*, and its total distance *north* or *south* of the reference-point (origin). These two coördinate distances by which each station is plotted are obtained from the latitudes and departures. For purposes of plotting, it makes no difference which station is chosen for a reference-point; it is well to select the *most westerly* station, especially as this is done when areas are computed from the latitudes and departures.

Note. Except in compass surveys the bearings used in computing latitudes and departures are always *calculated* bearings, based upon a magnetic, a true, or an assumed meridian, and upon the adjusted or final values of traverse angles. (See note, p. 467.)

Latitudes and departures may also be calculated directly from azimuths (see p. 387), and the above holds true for azimuths as well as for bearings.

(*a*) *To determine which is the most westerly station:* This can usually be done by inspection of the bearings. Start with any line and follow around the survey until the station is reached where the bearing changes from W. to E. Thus if *AB* is N.E., *BC* is S.E., *CD* is S.W., *DE* is S.W., *EF* is N.W., and *FA* is N.E., without consulting the figure at all it is seen from the bearings that *F* is the most westerly station, because at *F* the lines stop running west and begin to run east. When, however, there are *two* such points where lines change from west to east, as, for example, if *F* in Fig. 507 (*a*) were at *F′*, it is sometimes necessary to add up the departures each way, starting from some easterly station. Thus, if the sum of the departures of *CB* and *BA* is greater than the sum of the departures of *CD* and *DE* then *A* is the most westerly station, otherwise *E* is farther west than *A*. A still better method, especially when there are a large number of sides to the polygon, is to start with any station as an origin, and find by a preliminary tabulation similar to the last column on page 474, the *total* departure of each station from the assumed origin. The station having the largest *minus* departure is the most westerly station.

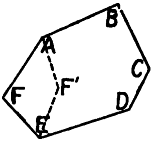

FIG. 507 (*a*).

(*b*) GENERAL METHOD OF PLOTTING BY LATITUDES AND DEPARTURES.

(1) Compute and tabulate the latitudes and departures of all transit lines. (See p. 389.)

(2) Add to the table three columns for plotting, headed respectively *Station, Total Latitude, Total Departure.*

(3) Choose the most westerly station as a point of reference or origin. Its total latitude and its total departure (its two coördinates) are *both* zero.

(4) With this station as an origin, compute the two coördinate distances for each of the other stations in turn as follows: Add *algebraically* the latitudes of all traverse lines passed over in going from the origin to the required point; this will give one coördinate, the *total latitude.* Add algebraically the departures of these same lines; this will give the other coördinate, the *total departure.* Enter the result for each station in the last *two columns.*

(5) Find the size of the rectangle * which just encloses the survey, i.e., the most westerly station will be on the left-hand side of the rectangle, the most easterly station on the right-hand side, the most northerly on the upper side, and the most southerly on the lower side. The largest total *north* latitude in the plotting column, plus the largest total *south* latitude, will be one side of the rectangle; since there is no total *west* departure in the plotting column the largest total departure *east* will be the other side of the rectangle.

(6) Draw the rectangle to the scale chosen for plotting the map. Check it by measuring each side, and by seeing that the diagonals are equal. The accuracy of the whole map depends upon the accuracy of this rectangle,—it is worth while to get it right to start with. (See suggestion (3), p. 475.)

(7) Locate each transit station by its two coördinate distances. *Measure from the two nearest sides of the rectangle,* subtracting if necessary values in the table from the lengths of the corresponding sides of the rectangle.

(8) Connect the transit stations by fine lines and *measure the length of each transit line* to see if it checks with the length used in calculating the latitudes and departures. (See also additional check, p. 475.)

Caution. The object in measuring from the two *nearest* sides in (7) is to reduce the errors likely to arise when the T-square is used for projecting a point any considerable distance across the drawing-board.

In very accurate work it is better not to rely upon the T-square and triangles but, having made sure that the rectangle is correct, to proceed as follows: Find by measurement a point on the east side of the rectangle exactly opposite the station used as the origin, and draw an east-and-west line from the origin to this point for use as a reference-line in measuring latitudes. To plot any station, lay off its total departure twice, once along the north side of the rectangle and once along the south side. On the line between the two points thus obtained, lay off the total latitude of the station, north or south as the case may be, measured from the east and west reference-line.

(*c*) *Illustration.* For the sake of simplicity whole numbers are used for latitudes and departures in the following illustration. Since the values of the bearings and the lengths of the lines do not enter directly into the plotting, they are purposely omitted.

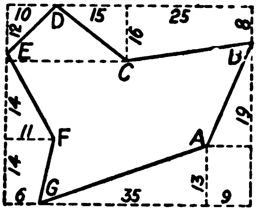

FIG. 507 (*c*).

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* The author prefers to use this rectangle for measuring coördinates in place of two coördinate axes through the most westerly station.

Line	Bearing	Length	Latitude North	Latitude South	Departure East	Departure West	Station	Total Lat.	Total Dep.
			+	−	+	−			
AB	N.-E.		19		9		*B*	+ 4	50
BC	S.-W.			8		25	*C*	− 4	25
CD	N.-W.		16			15	*D*	+12	10
DE	S.-W.			12		10	*E*	0	0
EF	S.-E.			14	11		*F*	−14	11
FG	S.-W			14		5	*G*	−28	6
GA	N.-E		13		35		*A*	−15	41
			48	48	55	55			

(1) The latitudes and departures are first computed and tabulated.

(2) The headings of the last three columns are entered as shown.

(3) Running the eye down the second column it is seen that either *E* or *G* must be the most westerly station. Art. 507 (*a*). Adding departures from *B* to *E* $(25+15+10)=50$; from *B* to $G=9+35=44$. Hence *E* is 6 feet farther west than *G*. The coördinates of *E* are 0 and 0.

(4) Coördinates of the other stations from *E* as the origin are found as follows: Latitudes: $F=-14$. $G=-14+(-14)=-28$. $A=-28+13=-15$. $B=-15+19=+4$. $C=+4+(-8)=-4$. $D=-4+16=+12$. $E=+12+(-12)=0$ (check). The departure coördinates are $F=11$. $G=11+(-5)=6$. $A=6+35=41$. $B=41+9=50$. $C=50+(-25)=25$. $D=25+(-15)=10$. $E=10+(-10)=0$ (check).

(5) In the column of total latitudes the largest north latitude is 12; the largest south latitude is 28, hence one side of the rectangle is $12+28=40$ feet. The other side of the rectangle is equal to the largest total departure or 50 feet. Size of rectangle is 40 feet by 50 feet.

(6) Draw the rectangle to scale, and check it by measuring its sides and diagonals.

(7) Locate the origin *E*. It is on the western side of the rectangle, a *distance from the top equal to the largest* TOTAL LATITUDE NORTH = 12 feet. In this case this distance happens to be the latitude of *ED* also. Check *E* by measuring its distance from the lower side of the rectangle; it should be equal to the largest *total latitude south* = 28 feet. Locate each of the other stations by its coördinates, measuring as far as possible along the sides of the rectangle. Thus to locate *C* make a point 4 feet below *E* on the west side of the rectangle, and another point on the north side 25 feet from the corner and draw projecting lines from these two points as indicated. For any station remote from *E* as *A*, it may be more convenient *and more accurate* to measure from the two nearest sides.

(8) *Test the length of every transit line by scaling it.* Test also the angle *DEF*. (Why?) See Art. 507 (*f*).

(*d*) *Illustration.* In Fig. 507 (*d*) the transit lines already plotted by the other methods are plotted by latitudes and departures. The actual measurements used are given on the figure. Station *D* was located by the departure of $DE=169.4$ and by the latitude of $CD=312.0$, because these two distances were more convenient to use than the two coördinates given in the table. Similar modifications of the method will become apparent from inspection.

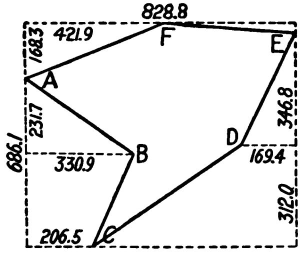

FIG. 507 (*d*).

Line	Bearing	Length	Latitude North	Latitude South	Departure East	Departure West	Station	Total Lat.	Total Depart.
AB	S. 55° 0′ E.	404.0		231.7	330.9		*B*	−231.7	330.9
BC	S. 23° 30′ W.	312.0		286.1		124.4	*C*	−517.8	206.5
CD	N. 55° 26′ E.	550.0	312.0		452.9		*D*	−205.8	659.4
DE	N. 26° 02′ E.	386.0	346.8		169.4		*E*	+141.0	828.8
EF	N. 86° 10′ W.	407.8	27.3			406.9	*F*	+168.3	421.9
FA	S. 68° 16′ W.	454.2		168.2		421.9	*A*	0.1	0.0
			686.1	686.0	953.2	953.2			

(*e*) *Suggestions.* (1) On large maps it is often advisable to subdivide the reference rectangle into squares of any convenient size, say 10″, and to use these squares for measuring off the coördinates. If these squares are all drawn at the outset, any shrinkage or expansion which may take place in the paper will not affect the relative positions of stations subsequently plotted, provided the squares are taken as the basis of measurement instead of the original scale. It is sometimes expedient not to draw the entire reference rectangle, but only those supplementary squares needed for plotting, especially if the survey does not close but zigzags in one general direction. (2) It is frequently advantageous to assume the reference rectangle so that no side is horizontal or vertical. (See directions for starting the map, p. 490.) In that case it may be expedient to use a T-square with adjustable head, and to set the blade to coincide with the lower and upper sides of the rectangle. (3) If in testing the reference rectangle it is found that the diagonals are not exactly equal, each right angle may be tested by laying off 10 inches along each side and measuring between the two points thus obtained to see if the distance is 14.142 inches. See Art. 496 (*e*), p. 461.) (4) Sometimes instead of plotting all stations from the same origin, each station is plotted by its latitude and departure from the preceding station. The only advantage in this is that by checking the *total* latitude and departure of the last station from the first station all lines between these two stations are checked. This check is of the most value when the traverse does not form a closed figure. (5) Let a fine dot represent the position of each station, draw a small free-hand circle around the dot and draw no lines of any kind inside this circle. Then there will always be a definite point to measure from, unobscured by lines.

(*f*) *Checks.* In addition to the check afforded by measuring distances between stations, it is well to test with the protractor the angle between two lines when either of these lines is nearly parallel to one of the coördinate axes. This is because a mistake made in measuring perpendicular to that axis does not greatly affect the length of the line. If preferred, the test in such a case may be made by checking the bearing of the line. (See also check in suggestion (4) above.)

508. Methods of Plotting Traverses Compared. The methods of plotting angles by the protractor, by tangents, by cosine and sine, and by chords have already been compared on page 461. In a test carried on with a large number of students the author has found that, apparently, there is little difference between the tangent method and the chord method, either in the time required to plot a closed traverse or in the accuracy attained. If anything the chord method seemed to be the quicker, and when the "home-made" beam compass (p. 460) was used the results were fully as accurate. This is, perhaps, contrary to the general impression.

The chief advantage in plotting *direct angles* or *deflection angles* lies in the fact that the check (p. 466) applied every few stations checks all previous courses, while if lines are plotted by *bearings* or *azimuths* no such single check can be used. On the other hand if a mistake is made in laying off the direction of one course and it is not discovered until a number of succeeding courses have been plotted, the direction of each of these courses must be changed, while if they have been plotted by bearings or azimuths the correction may be made by moving each line parallel to itself. For the same reason, when plotting by direct angles or deflection angles small errors in direction are likely to accumulate, though this may be remedied by plotting every fifth line or so by its bearing (p. 466).

The method of bearings or the method of azimuths is best adapted to plotting surveys which close, for it is difficult to check lines plotted by either of these methods if the traverse does not form a closed figure.

The method of plotting by coördinates (or latitudes and departures) is generally recognized as the best method for plotting the average map. The preliminary computations are somewhat longer than those required for the other methods, but on the other hand they may be used for supplying missing data and for calculating areas. The draftsman knows before he begins to plot whether or not a traverse closes, while in the other methods if it fails to close he is uncertain as to whether the error is in the field work or in the plotting. Since stations are plotted independently errors cannot accumulate, but on the other hand intermediate stations cannot be checked by checking the last station unless suggestion (4), p. 475, is carried out. One of the chief advantages of the method is that the size of the map may be ascertained before plotting is begun, since in the majority of cases it is approximately the size of the reference rectangle.

CHAPTER XL

WORKING UP FIELD NOTES PREPARATORY TO PLOTTING

The details of a survey are usually plotted directly from the field notes with little if any preparatory work. On the other hand more or less preiminary computation is necessary before the traverse lines can be plotted. Moreover the notes pertaining to traverse lines are often scattered through many pages of the note-book. It saves time, therefore, to get together all the data needed for computation and plotting, to make all the preliminary calculations and to arrange results in such a systematic manner that when plotting is begun the undivided attention may be given to the mechanical portion of the work.

509. The Method of Working Up Notes depends largely upon the method to be used in plotting. In any event it is well to make a rough free-hand sketch of the main lines or skeleton of the survey, and to put on this sketch all lengths and angles which will be needed for computation and plotting. It s better to take the time for this at the beginning of the work than to stop in the midst of a computation to search the field notes for necessary data.

Having thus gathered all the data that in any way affect the main lines, it may be necessary to correct or adjust values. The adjusted values of lengths and angles (or bearings) may be written in red ink on the original sketch, or a new sketch may be made showing only such data as will be needed for computation or plotting. From this sketch the draftsman can see what angles are to be plotted (they are often the complements or supplements of the angles measured in the field), or if the ines are to be plotted by latitudes and departures this sketch will be very useful in the preliminary calculation.

When the protractor is used, no further preparation is necesary, as the lines can be plotted directly from the data on the ketch. When, however, the more accurate methods are employed, additional data will be needed before the work of plotting is begun. The additional data required for each of the different methods of plotting are indicated in Art. 515, p. 483.

Remark. It is well to keep all sketches, computations, and results in a separate-leaf note-book, such as that described on p. 363.

510. Correcting Measurements. Paradoxical as it may seem, the more accurate the field work the more important it may be to correct the field measurements, for in order to obtain results of a high degree of precision, certain refinements are necessary which are entirely omitted in ordinary work. The corrections given below may or may not be necessary, depending upon the nature of the work. They are usually so small that they are not needed for purposes of plotting, but they may be needed for purposes of calculation or for permanent record.

(*a*) *Linear measurements* may be corrected for error in the length of the tape, p. 39, for error due to temperature, p. 40, and occasionally for sag and pull, pp. 41–42. If a distance is chained along a slope instead of in horizontal stretches, the calculated correction is applied, p. 35. In the case of inclined stadia readings, corrections are made as explained on p. 480.

(*b*) *Angular measurements.* Few corrections can be applied to angular measurements. In compass surveying bearings affected by local attraction may be corrected as explained on p. 297.

511. Adjusting Measurements means changing the angles and distances given in the notes so that they will conform more nearly to conditions which are known to exist. Adjustments are usually made for purposes of calculation, not for plotting.

(*a*) *Linear measurements.* If more than one value is given for a distance, the mean may be taken, throwing out any value that is obviously incorrect. When only one value is given it is not changed unless some obvious mistake is detected, such as an even hundred feet in chaining or reading from the wrong end of the tape, as, for example, 54 instead of 46. Sometimes several consecutive measurements are made along a line, as in taking offsets; when their sum does not exactly equal the total measurement, if it is worth while correcting the error it may be distributed among the partial measurements in proportion to their lengths.

(*b*) *Angular measurement.* The most common adjustment of angles is in the case of a closed figure, when the error in the sum of the interior angles (p. 119) may be distributed equally.

When a number of angles are clustered about the same point, the same adjustment may be made in order to make their sum equal 360°. When several angles at the same station are checked by measuring another angle, the error is distributed among all the angles, including the check angle. (See p. 14.) One should not be tied down by rules, however, for it is often better to change some of the angles without changing others. An illustration given below shows how, by merely changing six of the twenty angles of a survey, five conditions were fulfilled.

When several values are given for each angle, the mean value may be used. The mean value may be further modified if necessary in order that the interior angles of a polygon may add up correctly, or that some other condition may be fulfilled. Thus, for example, in class work, where several parties work independently but use the same stations, mean values may be found. these values adjusted, and the survey plotted from the composite values thus obtained.

(*c*) *Remark.* It must be remembered that in many cases nothing is gained by adjusting the measurements given in the field notes. The purpose of the survey and the limit of error will determine whether or not adjustment is necessary.

Sometimes after latitudes and departures have been calculated further adjustment of angles and distances may be made. (See pp. 394–398.)

(*d*) *Illustration.* In the survey on page 390 each distance and each angle was originally obtained by taking the mean of several measurements. No further adjustment of distances was possible. The angles, however, were adjusted on the following assumptions:

(1) In the two five-sided polygons the sum of the interior angles must equal 540°.

(2) In the one four-sided polygon the sum of the interior angles must equal 360°.

(3) In the two triangles the sum of the interior angles must equal 180°.

(4) The sum of the four angles at *Y* must equal 360°.

(5) In the ten-sided polygon *NOPQRSTUVWN*, the sum of the interior angles must equal 1440°.

Since it was not desired to carry any angle to seconds, the adjustment was made by changing six of the twenty angles as indicated in the figure. In no angle did the change exceed one minute.

(*e*) *In work of great precision* adjustment of observed values may be made by the method of least squares; this is a theoretical method of deducing the most probable results of a set of measurements. If some of the measurements are thought to be more accurate than others, they are given weight and treated accordingly. Equations are formed from conditions known to exist, probable errors are calculated, and theoretical values of angles and distances are deduced. The method is seldom used in ordinary plane surveying.

512. Calculating Bearings. If the bearings of lines are needed for plotting and they are not given in the notes, they may be calculated by the method explained in Chapter XXX, provided the bearing of one line is known. For purposes of plotting, however, it is not essential that the bearing of even one line should be given, for the *relative* positions of stations

will be correct if the bearing of any line be assumed, an
bearings of the other lines be calculated from that ass
value. In such a case it makes little difference what be
is assumed to start with.

Sometimes a true meridian is established in a survey (C
ter XXVIII) and the true bearing of some main line foun
measuring the angle it makes with the meridian. The
bearings of the other lines can then be calculated. (See p
for an example.)

In calculating all bearings the final adjusted values of a
are used. Make sure that bearings are consistent, i.e.
forward bearings or all back bearings.

In compass surveys the magnetic bearings are usually plo
for, of course, no calculated bearings are possible.

513. Supplying Missing Data. When the length of a li
the value of an angle is not given in the field notes it can
be calculated by the methods explained in Chapter XX
Notice, however, that in such cases there is no check on
field work, and hence, as pointed out in the note at the b
ning of Chapter XXXII, closing angles and distances shoul
measured whenever practicable.

514. Reducing Stadia Notes means finding the horiz
distance, or the vertical distance, or both, for each sigh
which the vertical angle a is large enough to be taken
account (ordinarily 3° or larger, see p. 308). The formula
inclined sights derived on p. 303 are:

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Horizontal distance} &= R - R\sin^2 a + C\cos a \\ &= R\cos^2 a + C\cos a. \\ \textit{Vertical distance} &= R\,\tfrac{1}{2}\sin 2\,a + C\sin a. \end{aligned}$$

When there are many readings to be reduced, the work
volved in substituting in these formulas would become a se
objection to the entire stadia method. Fortunately the t
$R\cos^2 a$ and $R\,\frac{1}{2}\sin 2a$ are independent of the instrumen
the linear unit used, and hence their values for different ver
angles can be computed once for all and tabulated. In
nary work $C\cos a$ is practically equal to C, and $C\sin a$ is o
a negligible quantity.

Three different devices for obtaining the value of R co
and $R\,\frac{1}{2}\sin 2a$ for different vertical angles are in common

viz.: (1) Reduction tables, (2) stadia diagrams, and (3) special forms of the slide-rule.

(*a*) Reduction tables. In some tables the values are computed on the assumption that the actual intercept on the rod (K) is unity, as, for example, one foot. Then any inclined distance, as Fm in Fig. 379, p. 306, may be reduced by multiplying that distance by the tabular value corresponding to the vertical angle. In other tables the values are based on the assumption that $R=100$, and hence the inclined distance is divided by 100 (two decimal places being pointed off), before multiplying by the tabular value. For horizontal distances the constant C (nearly equal to $C \cos a$) must be added to the result, but often $C \sin a$ may be neglected. In more accurate work $C \cos a$ and $C \sin a$, computed for several of the most common values of C, may be obtained from supplementary tables, usually given at the bottom of the main table.

Since for average stadia shots of 100 ft. or over the measurement is not exact beyond the figure in the third place, i.e., the figure in the fourth place is uncertain (see p. 370), not more than four places of figures should be retained in any result. (See p. 371.) Frequently three places will suffice. Hence an ordinary slide-rule may be used for multiplying tabular values. The next best method is that of abridged multiplication (p. 365), writing the extreme right-hand figure of the reversed multiplier under the fourth place of figures in the tabular value regardless of the position of the decimal point. (See Art. 425 (*g*), p. 371.)

(*b*) *Illustration.* Given a stadia reading = 234, vertical angle = 10° 22′, and an instrumental constant = 1.25:

ACCURATE METHOD		APPROXIMATE METHOD	
Horizontal	Vertical	Horizontal	Vertical
96.76	17.70	96.76	17.70
432	432	432	432
19352	3540	1935	354
2903	531	290	53
387	71	38	7
226.42	41.42	226.3	41.40
1.23	.23	1.23	.23
227.6	41.65	227.6	41.63

Notice that for most purposes the approximate results on the right are accurate enough, that is to say, the extreme right-hand figure of the reversed multiplier may be written under the third place of the multiplicand instead of under the fourth.

(*c*) Stadia diagrams. It is an easy matter to construct a diagram that will give fairly accurate results for vertical angles up to, say, 8° or 10°, but when the diagram is extended to cover 15° or 20°, either the scale must be reduced at a sacrifice in accuracy, or the diagram made inconveniently large. Nevertheless such diagrams are very useful, especially when two men work together, one with the note-book and the other with the diagram. Results can be obtained much more quickly than by the use of tables, and for most purposes they will be sufficiently accurate.

Usually separate diagrams are prepared, one for horizontal distances and one for differences in elevation.

(*d*) *Diagram for horizontal distances.* The simplest form may be constructed on cross-section paper, on which there are, say, 10 lines to the inch each way. (1) Assume the origin or zero-point in one corner of the paper, say the lower left-hand corner. (2) Along the lower edge, number every tenth (or heavy) vertical line, the numbers running 100, 200, etc., up to the longest sight taken in the field, say 1000 ft. (3) Along the right-hand edge number every tenth (or heavy) horizontal line, the numbers running 10, 20, etc., thus making the vertical scale ten times as large as the horizontal. (4) Find the values of 1000 $\sin^2 a$ for different vertical angles 1°, 2°, etc., up to say 15° or 20°, using stadia reduction tables or computing the values by trigonometry. Lay these values off along the ordinate marked 1000, using the vertical scale, and draw radial lines from the origin to the points thus obtained. Mark each radial line with its degree number.

(*e*) *Illustration. Use of the diagram.* Given a stadia reading $R=410$, vertical angle $=13°$, instrumental constant $C=1.2$. Find the vertical line next beyond the one numbered 400, follow up this line to its intersection with the radial line marked 13°, note that the nearest horizontal line is numbered 21, and estimate the reading as 20.7. Hence $410-20.7=389.3$ is the corrected (horizontal) distance, and adding $C=1.2$, the final result $=$ 390.5 feet.

(*f*) *Suggestions.* (1) The scale adopted depends upon the accuracy required, the maximum length of sight, and the maximum vertical angle. If, for example, the length of the longest sight taken in the field is less than 500 ft., there is no advantage in extending the diagram to 1000,—it is better to double the scale. (2) In large diagrams, intended for accurate work, intermediate radial lines may be drawn at intervals corresponding to 10 minutes of arc. If desired, an arithmetical table giving values of $C \cos a$ and $C \sin a$ for several values of C at 5° intervals may be printed in one corner of the sheet. (3) The reason that the vertical ordinates are plotted for values of $R \sin^2 a$ instead of $R \cos^2 a$ is that the former is a small quantity which changes rapidly for small angles, while the latter is a large quantity which changes slowly. Notice that a quantity taken from such a diagram must be *subtracted* from R, and C added to get the final result. (*Why?*)

(*g*) *Diagrams for obtaining differences in elevation* may be constructed in a similar manner, the vertical ordinates representing values of $R \frac{1}{2} \sin 2a$. The two diagrams may be drawn on the same sheet without conflicting, by laying off the abscissas and ordinates in the second diagram along the two edges of the paper not used in the first.

(*h*) *Remark.* A number of modifications of the diagrams just described have been devised with a view of saving space and increasing accuracy. In one of these, given in Professor I. O. Baker's *Engineers' Surveying Instruments*, p. 202, the values are laid off along the sides of triangles, equilateral triangles being used in the diagram for elevations. A combination diagram for obtaining horizontal distances and elevations is given on an insert-sheet of the *Engineering News*, Feb. 3, 1898, and on p. 85 of the same issue is another diagram small enough to go in the back of an ordinary field book.

(*i*) STADIA SLIDE-RULES,* such as those designed by Mr. William Cox and by Mr. B. H. Colby, may be used in place of tables or diagrams. Accurate results can be obtained with great rapidity after a few minutes' practice in the use of these slide-rules. The few simple directions necessary are furnished with the slide-rules.

515. Getting Together Data for Plotting—Summary. The first five or six steps are practically the same, regardless of the method of plotting that will be used.

1. Make a rough sketch showing approximately the relative positions of stations.
2. Mark on the sketch the lengths and angles given in the field notes for the main lines. If the stadia was used reduce the inclined readings and put the *horizontal* distances on the sketch.
3. If necessary correct the measurements for errors from different sources (p. 478).
4. If desirable, adjust the values to conform to known conditions, as explained on p. 478. If the stadia was used reduce inclined readings (p. 480).
5. Mark the final values of angles and distances in red ink on the sketch.
6. If bearings are to be used either in the calculations or for plotting, start with the bearing of one line and calculate the bearings of the others (p. 479). (If the survey was made with the compass, this, of course, is not done.) Use the final adjusted values of angles in calculating bearings. Enter the calculated bearings on the sketch, making sure they are all forward bearings.

The remaining steps will differ somewhat according to the method used in plotting.

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* See *Catalogue of Keuffel and Esser Co.*

(*a*) *Protractor method.* No additional data are required. Work directly from the sketch. Angles, bearings, or azimuths may be plotted.

(*b*) *Tangent method.* (1) It is well to indicate on the sketch the actual angles or bearings to be plotted, as many of them may be the complements or the supplements of those previously marked on the sketch. (2) Prepare a table similar to that on p. 465, or if bearings are to be plotted, similar to that on p. 469.

(*c*) *Chord method.* (1) As in the tangent method, indicate on the sketch the actual angles or bearings to be plotted. (2) Prepare a table similar to that on p. 465, or if bearings are plotted, similar to that on p. 470.

(*d*) *Latitude and departure method.* (1) Compute the latitudes and departures, using, of course, final corrected values of lengths and bearings. (See pp. 393 and 394 for forms.) (2) If desired, adjust the values thus obtained, i.e., balance the survey (p. 395). (3) Tabulate for plotting (p. 474), and find the size of the circumscribed rectangle. (A complete illustration of working up notes for plotting by this method is given on pp. 390 to 394.)

(*e*) *Azimuths.* If azimuths are given they may be plotted by chords or tangents, tables similar to those on pp. 469 and 470 being prepared, or latitudes and departures may be calculated without reducing azimuths to bearings (see p. 387).

CHAPTER XLI

PLOTTING THE MAP

GENERAL METHODS AND SUGGESTIONS

IN plotting the map, something more is needed than a mere knowledge of the use of drawing instruments and of the different methods of plotting traverses. Practical questions arise, such as the choice of scale, the general arrangement of the map, the order of plotting, the precautions necessary to insure accuracy, the methods of checking the drawing, of plotting details, of interpolating contours, and of copying maps. These questions are discussed in this chapter.

516. Equipment. (*a*) *Paper.* (1) If maps are to be preserved a long time or are likely to receive rough usage, the durability of the paper is an important quality, while if distances are to be scaled with accuracy, the paper should contract and expand as little as possible under atmospheric changes. These two qualities are best combined in mounted paper or paper backed with muslin. For penciling, preparatory to tracing, almost any *white* paper will answer, provided fine lines can be drawn and its surface will stand erasing. A tough bond-paper is best for maps which will be folded (creased) and carried in the pocket. For maps which are to be tinted, mounted paper is recommended; if an unmounted paper is used it should be of high grade, with a surface adapted to either lines or wash—a pebbled or egg-shell surface is often preferred. For photo-reproduction Bristol board or a hard white paper with a smooth glossy surface is the best, although excellent reproductions can be made from tracings. Tracing-cloth should be of the best quality, otherwise ink is liable to strike through; tracing-paper may be used when only a few prints are needed and it is not necessary to preserve the tracing for a long period of time. For blue-prints thin tough paper will usually stand rough handling better than the smooth thick paper, but prints are likely to be somewhat inferior. The more sensitive a paper is, the quicker it deteriorates, and the more care is required in handling it in a strong light. "Medium" printing-paper is recommended for most purposes; in ordering paper, be careful to state whether quick-printing, medium, or slow-printing paper is desired. (See p. 453.)

(*b*) *Drawing instruments.* The edges of the straight-edge, the T-square, and the triangles should be straight. This is more essential in map-drawing than in almost any other kind of drafting. (See p. 438 for test.) The angles of a triangle should be true, especially the right angle. (See p. 439 for test.) Straight-edges, T-squares, and triangles made of steel are usually the most accurate. The pencil should be hard (6-H) and properly sharpened. (See p. 438.) The ruling-pen should be of the very best quality, and the points should be kept in good condition. (See p. 441.) The scale should be a *decimal* scale and its graduations should be accurate and definite. The surface of the drawing-board or table should be a smooth plane. These are the most essential requirements for instruments used in mapping.

517. Precautions Necessary in Accurate Plotting. As the edges of a drawing-board are seldom exactly straight, lines drawn along the T-square blade, as it is moved up and down the board, are seldom exactly parallel. A steel straight-edge fastened to the left-hand edge of the board remedies this to some extent, but even then there is apt to be some play in the blade of the T-square, and hence, in very accurate work, it is better not to rely upon this method. As comparatively few lines in maps are vertical or horizontal, the T-square is not as necessary in plotting as it is in other kinds of drawing; a steel straight-edge about three feet long may be used in its place. All important reference lines, such as traverse lines, can then be plotted entirely by measurement without depending upon parallel lines drawn with the T-square or upon perpendiculars erected with the triangles. (See the method given in *Caution*, p. 473.) Such precautions, however, are not necessary in much of the plotting done in ordinary work.

The shrinkage of the drawing-paper may be another source of error. If the map is 4 or 5 feet wide the change in the paper is frequently as much as ¼ inch, and sometimes ½ inch. The more seasoned the paper the less it will shrink, hence it is *well to keep* paper in the office several months before using it.

In plotting new details on old maps test the map first to see if shrinkage has occurred, and if it has make proper allowance for it in plotting. On the other hand, in maps which have been rolled up, test for expansion, as rolling tends to stretch the paper—a good reason for filing maps flat when possible.

518. General Methods. A large part of the work in mapping is the reverse of field work; distances that were measured with a tape or chain are laid off with a scale, and angles that were measured with a transit or compass are laid off with a protractor. Such work involves no calculation. When, however, the plotting is done by *indirect* measurements, that is by measurements which are not the same as those taken in the field, these indirect measurements must be obtained from the field measurements by calculation, as, for example, when angles are plotted by latitudes and departures or by any of the trigonometric methods.

A common method in field work is to run traverses and locate details simultaneously (p. 132), but in mapping, the traverse lines are almost always plotted first, before work is begun on the details. The plotting is done in pencil, usually on paper, but sometimes directly on tracing-cloth, and after the penciling is completed, the lines are inked. If only a single copy of the map is desired, the pencil lines are inked directly on the paper, but if more than one copy is required the lines are usually traced and process prints made from the tracing.

519. Method of Procedure Outlined. (1) Choose a suitable scale for the map (p. 489), decide upon the method of plotting traverse lines (see p. 492), and work up the field notes, making sketches and arranging data so that no delay in plotting will be caused by searching through field books (Chapter XL). (2) Select a suitable drawing-paper (p. 485) and stretch it on the drawing-board until it lies smooth and flat (p. 445). (3) Sharpen a 6-H pencil to a round point at one end and a wedge-shaped point at the other (p. 438). (4) Wipe the triangles and T-square *clean*, and brush the surface of the paper. Throughout the work, take precautions to insure neatness (p. 445). (5) Follow the directions for starting the map given on page 490. (6) Plot the traverse lines in pencil (Chapter XXXIX), marking each station with its letter or number. Use hair lines and prick the points. Observe correct methods of penciling (p. 446) and of laying off measurements (p. 448).

Apply checks continually as the work progresses (p. 494). (7) Plot details in pencil (p. 493). (8) Ink the map or trace it. Observe the directions on pages 440 and 446 for inking and those on page 451 for tracing. (9) Finish the map (Chapter XLI), making sure that it meets the requirements given in Art. 532, p. 502. (10) If blue-prints or brown solar prints are desired, follow the directions given on pages 453 and 454.

520. Scales. (*a*) The most common scales for ordinary maps are those in which the number of *feet* represented by one *inch* is some *multiple of ten.* In general these scales are as follows:

Nature of the Map	Number of Feet per Inch							
Small territory—many details	10	**20**	30	**40**	50	60	80	**100**
Large territory—few details	**100**	**200**		400	500		**800**	**1000**

The numbers in black-face type are probably the scales most frequently used. Notice that 70 and 90 are the only two multiples of ten below 100 that are not included. The first six (from 10 to 60 inclusive) are the scales usually found on the six sides of a triangular scale; the scales of 80 and 100 can be obtained by using the 40 and 50 sides respectively, but 70 and 90 have no such corresponding sides.

(*b*) The so-called *natural scale* is one in which a given distance on the map is some round fraction of the distance it represents, such as $\frac{1}{10000}$, $\frac{1}{50000}$, etc. Such scales are used for maps of large territories, e.g., those of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey and of the United States Geological Survey.* The maps of the former are usually plotted to a scale of $\frac{1}{10000}$, while those of the latter are mostly plotted to a scale of $\frac{1}{30000}$ and then reduced in lithographing to $\frac{1}{62500}$ or $\frac{1}{125000}$ (about 1 inch and 2 inches to the mile respectively).

(*c*) SCALE EQUIVALENTS FOR VARIOUS RATIOS †

Feet to One Inch	Miles to One Inch	Meters to One Inch	Kilometers to One Inch	Ratio (Number Ins.)
100	0.019	30.480	0.030	1 : 1200
400	0.076	121.920	0.122	1 : 4800
500	0.095	152.400	0.153	1 : 6000
800	0.151	243.840	0.244	1 : 9600
833⅓	0.157	254.000	0.254	1 : 10000
1000	0.189	304.801	0.305	1 : 12000
5280	1.000	1609.2	1.609	1 : 63360
10560	2.000	3218.4	3.218	1 : 126720

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* See Gillespie, Vol. I, p. 27, for scales used for surveys in different countries.

† *See Wilson's Topographic Surveying*, p. 447, for a more complete table.

521. The Choice of Scale. Primary considerations in choosing the scale are: (1) the use to which the map will be put, and (2) the extent of territory to be represented. Thus, for example, if distances are to be scaled on the map to the nearest foot, the scale should be at least as large as 1 in. = 100 ft., and, if possible, as large as 1 in. = 40 ft. For a small map with many details, such as that of a city lot and buildings, a scale as large as 1 in. = 20 ft., or even 1 in. = 10 ft., is preferable. For large maps with few details, such, for example, as the average topographic map, scales from 1 in. = 100 ft. to 1 in. = 1000 ft. may be used. In the excellent survey of Baltimore, Md., the scales adopted were 1 in. = 200 ft. for plotting topographic maps, and 1 in. = 40 ft. for property maps. Preliminary surveys for railroads are usually plotted to a scale of from 100 to 500 ft. per inch, while maps of mines and mining claims are more often to a scale of 100 or 200 ft. to the inch; of course maps of railroads and mines made for special purposes are often drawn to larger scale. Architects usually prefer a scale of 1 in. = 64 ft., or 1 in. = 32 ft., or 1 in. = 16 ft., or, occasionally, 1 in. = 4 ft., to correspond to the scale which they use for the plans of buildings.

The scales of 1 in. = 20 ft., 1 in. = 40 ft., and 1 in. = 80 ft., all have the common advantage that distances may be scaled approximately with a carpenter's rule or an architect's scale, since ¼ inch equals 5, 10, and 20 ft. respectively. Similarly in the scales 200, 400, and 800 ft. per inch, ¼ in. equals 50, 100, and 200 ft. respectively.

Frequently the choice is restricted to some scale small enough so that the whole map will fall within a rectangle of given size. The dimensions of this rectangle are sometimes determined by the size of the blue-print frame, or by the size of the drawer in which the map will be filed, or by the size of sheet most convenient for handling, or by the standard size adopted for similar maps. The arrangement of the map must be taken into account, for if it is desired to have the north at the top and the border lines square with the compass points, it may be necessary to adopt a smaller scale than would otherwise be used (see next article). When it is desirable to choose as large a scale as a given rectangle will permit, it is often expedient to plot the traverse lines roughly to any scale in order to determine the shape and extent of the survey.

(*a*) TWO GENERAL RULES. I. *Choose a scale large enough so that in plotting or in scaling distances from the finished map it will not be necessary to read the scale closer than $\frac{1}{100}$ inch.* (Allowance should be made for expansion and contraction due to atmospheric changes.)

II. *Choose as small a scale as is consistent with a clear delineation of the smallest details to be plotted,* due regard being paid to Rule I. In topographic maps, especially, it is an advantage to adopt as small a scale as practicable, for not only is a larger area shown on each sheet, but by bringing contour lines closer together a more vivid impression is given of the real nature of the surface depicted.

It is frequently necessary to draw maps of the same territory to different scales, first one map to small scale showing the region as a whole, then other maps to a much larger scale, each sheet corresponding to a portion of the original small-scale map.

522. Arrangement. It is desirable to arrange a map with the *north* at the *top*, making the top and bottom border-lines *true* east-and-west lines, and the side border-lines *true* north-and-south lines. Such an arrangement, however, is seldom economical, the border-lines forming a larger rectangle than is necessary, hence some other arrangement is followed when it is more desirable to confine the map to a small space than it is to have the border-lines square with the compass points. Moreover it often is best to have the natural approach to a piece of property at the bottom of a map, even though this brings the south at the top. For example, in the case of a house and lot, it is natural to look for the street side and the approach to the house at the bottom of the map, even though this may bring the south end of the lot at the top.

There are many questions of arrangement, such as where to put the title, the meridian-needle, and the explanatory notes, which do not have to be settled until the map is plotted and ready to finish. (See Chapter XLII.)

523. How to Begin a Map. Usually the first step is to plot the traverse to a small scale, using the protractor for laying off angles; if latitudes and departures have been calculated, it is quicker to plot by coördinates laid off on cross-section paper. This preliminary sketch is drawn roughly and quickly merely to give an idea of the general shape of the plot and the space that it will occupy.

(*a*) *Which line to begin with.* Unless the traverse is to be plotted by coördinates, the position and direction of some traverse line must be assumed to start with, and its length laid off to scale. In a closed figure it is well to begin at the first station and work half-way around the polygon in either direction to lessen cumulative errors. For the same reason, in a traverse that does not close it is well to begin near the middle and plot toward either end.

(*b*) *How to assume the first line.* A starting-point and a direction for the first line should be assumed in such a way that when the other lines are plotted they will not run off the paper. In this the preliminary plot referred to above is of the greatest assistance. If a meridian is to be used in plotting, it is convenient to make it a vertical line; in that case the direction of the first line cannot be assumed, but must be found by laying off its bearing or its azimuth. It is by no means essential, however, that the meridian should be a vertical line; on the contrary, there are many cases in which if it were assumed vertical the map would not fall within the limits of the paper. It is then necessary to assume the first line in the proper position as judged by a preliminary sketch, and to lay off its bearing or azimuth backward to establish the direction of the meridian. This will bring the east-and-west line oblique to the T-square blade, but if the head of the T-square is adjustable the blade can usually be made to coincide either with the east-and-west line or with the north-and-south line.

For the reasons just given, it is often expedient to lay off the reference rectangle, used in plotting by coördinates, so that no side is vertical or horizontal. The inclination required in order that the lines may not run off the paper is estimated by means of the preliminary plot referred to above. In this case it is often inexpedient to draw the entire reference rectangle. (See p. .475) Notice that the size of the reference rectangle is known from the computations (p. 473), and that if this rectangle can be drawn to the desired scale without running off the paper there is no need of making the preliminary plot.

(*c*) *Remark.* No matter how the map may be arranged with respect to the edges of the paper, after the plotting is finished border-lines may be drawn in any desired direction and the sheet trimmed accordingly. (See p. 504.)

524. Plotting the Triangulation Net. In extensive surveys where primary stations have been established by triangulation, the first step in plotting is to lay out the triangulation net. The lengths of the sides of the triangles having been computed the lines may be plotted by any of the methods of plotting traverses. Unless the method of coördinates is used it is well to plot first those stations lying on the outside, i.e., in the perimeter of the survey. Sometimes the triangulation net may be plotted with sufficient accuracy by simply swinging intersecting arcs with radii corresponding to the lengths of the sides of the triangles, establishing each triangle in turn by this method. Occasionally a station may have to be plotted by the three-point method (p. 462).

525. Plotting Traverses. (A summary of Chapter XXXIX.)

1. For every method of running traverse lines in the field there is a corresponding method of plotting. In addition there is the method of latitudes and departures.

2. In accurate work the ordinary protractor should not be used for plotting traverses. Use it for checking angles. Even vernier protractors will not give as accurate results as can be obtained by other methods.

3. The tangent method, the cosine and sine method, and the chord method are used for laying off direct angles, deflection angles, bearings, and azimuths. Latitudes and departures are used for accomplishing the same results indirectly.

4. Transit lines must be plotted with more than ordinary care, since upon them the accuracy of the whole map depends. Use hair lines and prick points.

5. Before beginning to plot, get together all data that will be needed, including the tangents or chords of all angles to be plotted if corresponding methods are employed (see p. 484), or the two columns of coördinates if latitudes and departures are used.

(*a*) FIVE METHODS OF PLOTTING TRANSIT LINES

(1) *Each line plotted from the preceding line.* (See p. 464.) The tangent method, the cosine and sine method, or the chord method is used for laying off the angle (or its complement or supplement). A base of 10″ or a radius of 10″ is convenient to use. *Check.* Test the bearing of the last line, and if there are many lines apply a similar check at every fourth or fifth station.

(2) *Each line plotted by a deflection angle.* (See p. 466.) A modification of the preceding method. Used in railway work and other similar surveys. Checks same as in (2).

(3) *Each line plotted from its bearing.* (See p. 467.) (1) Draw a 20″ square, subdivide into four 10″ squares to correspond to the four quadrants of bearing, plot each bearing in its proper square by measuring ten times the tangent along the side of the square. A better method still is to make one 10″ square answer for all four quadrants. (2) Draw a circle 20″ in diameter, divide into quadrants of bearing, and plot each bearing in its proper quadrant by its chord. Four 90° arcs, the four centers of which are corners of a 10″ square, may be used in place of a 20″ circle, but no advantage is gained except in economy of space. *Check.* Test the angle between traverse lines at each station. There is no single check which checks all previous courses.

A modification of this method is to draw parallel meridians through the stations, and to lay off bearings from these meridians. Another method is to draw a series of 10″ squares. (See p. 471.)

(4) *Each line plotted from its azimuth.* (See p. 471.) Practically the same methods can be used as those given for bearings.

(5) *Transit lines plotted from the latitudes and departures.* (See p. 471.) The most westerly station is chosen as an origin, and each station is plotted by its two coördinate distances (1) north or south, (2) east from the origin. The coördinates are computed by adding algebraically first the latitudes, then the departures, starting with 0 and 0 as the coördinates of the most westerly station, and finding the coördinates of each successive station in order. As a convenient method of measuring the coördinates a rectangle is drawn, the sides of the rectangle passing through the extreme east and west, north and south stations. If preferred, two coördinate axes through the most westerly station may be used instead of the rectangle. For very accurate work do not rely upon the T-square and triangles, but observe the caution on p. 473. *Check.* Measure the length of each traverse line, and in addition test the angle between two lines if one line is nearly parallel to a coördinate axis.

(6) Methods of plotting traverses are compared on page 475. The method of latitudes and departures is the best for general work.

526. Checks Used in Plotting. Precautions and checks are used constantly in field work; similar precautions and checks should be used in plotting. A draftsman can accomplish more in the long run if he will check his work as he goes along. No reliance can be placed upon a map which has not been checked.

Some of the methods given in this article are only approximate checks intended to disclose blunders in plotting, but blunders, perhaps, are more common than small errors.

(*a*) *Checks for linear measurements.* (1) Any straight line may be divided into two or more segments, each segment scaled separately, and the sum of the results compared with the length of the line given in the field notes. (2) Several lines may be scaled, the results recorded on paper, and then compared with the corresponding distances in the field notes. This is better than to look up a distance in the field notes and then scale the corresponding line, for in the latter method the mind is prejudiced, and any mistake made originally in laying off a distance may be repeated. (3) To check lines of a traverse, lay a paper straight-edge on the drawing, mark off the lengths of the lines consecutively along the edge of the paper, each line beginning at the end of the preceding line, and scale the total distance to see if it equals the sum of the lengths of all the traverse lines. This method is particularly useful when the plus-station system of numbering (p. 147) is employed, since the station number of each mark as read from the scale may be compared with that given in the notes. (4) When two points are plotted by *indirect* measurements, always scale the distance between them as a check. Thus, for example, when two sides of a triangle have been laid off, scale the third side to see if it agrees with the length given in the field notes. This method, which is often a check on angles as well as distances, is especially useful in checking lines plotted by latitudes and departures.

(*b*) *Checks for angles.* (1) To check an angle which has been laid off with a protractor, measure its complement or some other related angle which requires a shifting of the protractor, instead of checking the angle itself. (2) Two or more adjacent angles may be tested by measuring the sum-angle. (3) Never plot an angle by the chord method or the tangent method without checking it roughly with a protractor. (4) In plotting traverse lines, always compute the azimuths or the bearings of all of the lines. If the lines are plotted by azimuths or bearings, check the angle between the traverse lines at each station, and *vice versa* if the traverse-line angles have been plotted check the azimuths or bearings, as more fully explained in the preceding chapter. The aim should be to check one angle by measuring an entirely different angle to avoid repeating mistakes.

If the traverse lines form a closed figure, the check angles may be measured with the protractor, otherwise measure them by some method as accurate as that used for plotting the original angles.

Question. What check often employed in the field corresponds to the check used for traverses plotted by direct or deflection angles?

(*c*) *Combination checks.* (1) Check a reference rectangle by measuring the opposite sides and also the diagonals to see if they are equal. (2) If a traverse closes, not only should the closing line pass through the first station but the distance from the last station to the first should agree with the distance measured in the field. (3) When an extra distance or angle has been measured in the field as a check, this distance or angle should be tested on the map.

(*d*) *To "run down" an error.* If traverse lines forming a polygon do not close when plotted, the error may often be "run down" without going over all of the work again, by making the following tests. (1) If the error of closure is in a direction *parallel* to some line in the traverse, test the length of that line; if it is *perpendicular* to the line, test the bearing. (2) If a traverse has been plotted by direct angles or by deflection angles, calculate the bearing of the last line and see if the angle between this line and the meridian agrees with the calculated value; if it does the *directions* of all the lines are probably correct. In that case test the lengths as directed on page 494. (3) If by the test in (2) an error in the direction of the last line is found, apply the same test to some preceding line, say three or four stations back. Continue to make the test until a line is found whose direction is correct and then work forward applying the test at each station. (4) When lines have been plotted by bearings or azimuths no single test can be made; it is well to begin at the last station and to work backward, testing the direct angle or the deflection angle at each station. (5) If a point is obviously wrong and the mistake is not easily found, try to arrive at the same point from some other direction. (6) Keep in mind the effect of slight changes in the bearings of long lines, and of lines nearly north and south or east and west. (See (3) and (4), p. 397.)

527. Plotting Details. In Chapter XIII are given different methods of locating details in the field corresponding to the seven methods of locating a point given on page 4. The work of plotting details is simply the reverse of that done in the field, enough points being established to determine the outlines of the details.

(*a*) *Points located by angles and distances.* Usually the distances from the station to the points located are comparatively short, frequently less than 100 ft. Moreover, if a slight error is made in plotting a point, it does not affect the entire survey as does an error in plotting a station. Hence in plotting details the protractor is generally used for laying off angles. One of the most convenient forms is shown on page 456. Usually there are a number of points located from the same station, and as fast as they are plotted they should be numbered in such a way that there will be no difficulty or confusion in drawing the outlines. Frequently, only two or three points of a building or other rectangular object are given, the perpendicular sides being completed with the triangle and scale.

(*b*) *Points located by angles only.* Angles are laid off and the lines numbered so that the required points of intersection may be found without confusion. The method of plotting a point located by the *three-point* method is explained on page 462.

(*c*) *Points located by linear measurements only.* Frequently the right angles for perpendicular offsets may be estimated by eye, especially in plotting indefinite details, such as edges of streams and roads. A point located by two intersecting distances may be plotted by swinging two arcs with the compasses, or better still by swinging one arc and using the scale. This applies especially to all tie-line methods. To test the straightness of a line located by offsets, such for example as a fence line, plot the offsets on another paper (cross-section paper will often answer the purpose), using an exaggerated scale for offsets just as heights are laid off to an exaggerated scale in plotting profiles. This is especially useful in determining boundaries.

(*d*) *General suggestions.* (1) Keep the drawing free from unnecessary lines. Thus in plotting by angle and distance it is not necessary to draw radial lines clear to the station; draw only the portions near the points located. Likewise draw only short portions of intersecting arcs.

(2) Test all check distances or angles. For example, if two houses are plotted independently and the shortest distance between them is given in the notes, always check this distance on the map. Likewise test all the lines given as checks. If an angle is given to a point not for the purpose of plotting but as a check, the field work in measuring the angle goes for nothing unless the angle is tested on the map.

(3) Make it a practice to plot all the important points at a station first, such for example as the main corners of a building or of a street.

(4) Do not waste time in trying to establish some one point which does not come right. After a reasonable effort to locate it leave it and plot the nearby points. Frequently when they are plotted the location of the doubtful point will be evident.

528. Interpolating a Contour means plotting a number of points through which the required contour passes, by interpolating each point between two points already plotted, one higher, the other lower than the contour. Assuming the ground to slope uniformly between any two points used for interpolation, there are a number of methods of finding the position of the required point.

(*a*) *Graphic method.* When the surface of the ground has been divided into squares or rectangles and the height of each corner is given, points may be interpolated, as explained on page 433.

Remark. Any three points on the surface of the ground will lie in some plane, but it is not often that *more* than three points lie in the same plane. Hence if a point is found by interpolating between two given points on the map it cannot be checked by interpolating between two other points. Thus, for example, if a point has been interpolated between two diagonally opposite corners of a square, it is not likely that it will coincide with a point interpolated between the other two corners, for it is not likely that all four corners lie in the same plane. This applies especially to the above method of interpolation, but it should be kept in mind in interpolating by any of the other methods.

(*b*) *Tracing-cloth method.* Let *A* and *B*, Fig. 528 (*b*), be two points on a map whose elevations are 30.3 and 32.7 ft. respectively. It is desired to interpolate two points whose elevations are 31 and 32 ft. A piece of tracing-cloth is ruled with horizontal lines, any convenient distance apart, each space representing 0.1 ft., and the lines representing whole feet being numbered from 0 to 10. Any point on the line representing 0.3 ft. is set at *A* and held there by a prick point. The tracing is then swung on this point as a pivot until the 2.7-ft. line passes through *B*. The points where the 1-ft. line and the 2-ft. line crosses *AB* are pricked through, for they are the required points. Thus the tracing-cloth can be used over and over for interpolating any number of points.

Suggestions. (1) The number and spacing of the parallel lines will depend upon the scale of the map and upon the greatest differences in elevation or the maximum distances apart of any two given points used in interpolation. Thus, for example, if the scale of the map is 1 in. = 20 ft., and elevations are given to tenths at distances not exceeding say 40 or 50 ft., then 40 to 60 lines say $\frac{1}{20}$ in. apart may be ruled. If there are 60 lines and each space represents 0.1 ft. in elevation, differences in elevation may be interpolated up to say 5 ft. This range may be doubled by calling each space 0.2 ft., quadrupled by calling each space 0.4 ft., and so on. Thus a piece of cloth the size of a postal card will often be large enough. (2) Having ruled lines to suit the conditions, number the lines along the edge to correspond. It is well also to rule every tenth line heavy or in red ink to aid the eye in reading. (3) If, occasionally, two points are too close together and of too great a difference in elevation to use the lines as numbered, let each space represent two, four, or even ten times its usual value, as suggested above.

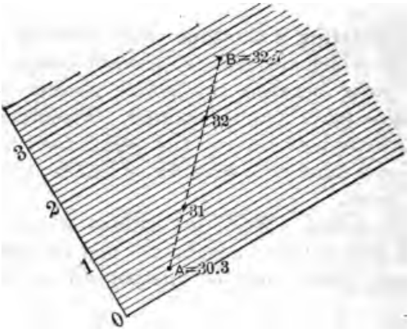

FIG. 528 (*b*).

(*c*) *Home-made device.* Let the parallelogram in Fig. 528 (*c*) represent the inside edges of a jointed frame with parallel threads stretched across, such as that shown in Fig. 528 (*d*). Let it be required to interpolate between two points, *A* and *B*, whose elevations are 52.3 and 58.6 respectively. Set the 2.3 point on one edge at *A* and the 8.6 point on the other edge at *B*. Then thread 5 will cross *AB* at a point on the 55-ft. contour. Likewise if points on the 53-, 54-, 56-, 57-, and 58-ft. contours are desired they will be where the corresponding threads cross *AB*.

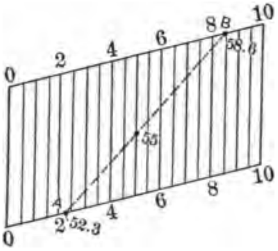

FIG. 528 (*c*).

n making this device the number and spacing of threads depend upon the conditions named in the suggestions given ve for drawing lines on tracing-cloth. The directions for cing the particular form shown in Fig. 528 (*d*) were given

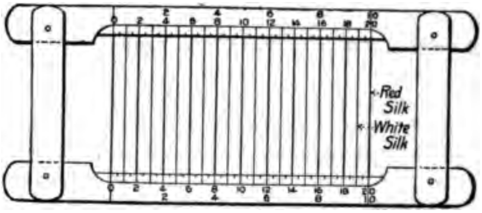

FIG. 528 (*d*).

Ir. I. T. Farnham in the *Engineering News*, July 30, 1903. is one of the best of a number of devices in common use, lepending upon the principle of similar triangles.*

29. **Accuracy Required in Plotting.** The same considions which determine the accuracy required in field work) and govern the choice of scale (p. 489) will deter[illegible]also accuracy required in plotting. As a rule, distanc[illegible]uld id off as accurately as the scale adopted will permit. Not arts of a map, however, should be plotted with the same racy. Plot accurately things located accurately in the —slight things slighted in the field. Thus, for example, erse lines and boundary lines should be plotted accurately, ndefinite or unimportant details such as river-banks, paths, l roads, and contour lines may be plotted with much less

0. **Speed.** The suggestions concerning speed in field work) hold good for plotting also. Perhaps nothing contributes eed more than working up the field notes properly, and ng data together before beginning to plot. (Chapter XL.) hand sketches of transit lines with angles and distances ed on the sketches will often save delay in looking up . Skill in using the drawing instruments should be supented by an economical method of procedure. *Like opers should be grouped.* Thus, for example, all lines that can

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e *Engineering News*, 1900, Vol. I, pp. 211, 307, 410, and 1900, Vol. I , 109.

be drawn with one position of the T-square and triangles should be finished before beginning another set of lines. When the scale is in hand, all measurements which can be made at that time should be laid off. Make sure that the skeleton of the survey is correct by systematic checks (p. 494) before plotting details.

531. Copying and Transferring Maps. Several methods are given below.

(1) Pin the map to be copied on the drawing-board with a clean sheet of paper underneath, and prick through the important points with a sharp fine needle. Work with system so as not to omit any points, and when the upper sheet is removed find first the points which determine the principal lines and then work up the less important details. Several copies can be pricked at once, and the holes in the original map may almost be obliterated by rubbing them on the back of the sheet with a smooth hard substance.

(2) Copy the map with a pantograph (p. 443).

(3) Trace the map and print it on blue or brown process paper (pp. 451 to 454).

(4) Rule squares of any desired size on the original map, draw an equal number of squares on another sheet of paper, and plot each important point by its distances from two sides of the square in which it is located. Unimportant points may be located by eye. If it is desired to reduce or enlarge the map draw the squares on the clean sheet to a smaller or larger scale.

(5) Trace the map on thin tough tracing paper, rub the reverse side of the paper along all of the lines with a soft black pencil, pin the paper over a clean sheet of drawing paper, blackened side downward, and go over the lines with a sharp hard pencil under moderate pressure. This will leave a faint tracing on the clean paper which can be inked afterward. While rubbing the lead on the back of the tracing paper, lay the latter on a hard smooth surface, as a steel triangle, so that the lead will spread evenly.

(6) Maps may be copied by the aid of light from beneath, just as small tracings on thick paper can be made by holding the two sheets against a window pane. The map with the clean paper over it should be laid on a sheet of glass and a strong light reflected through from beneath.* A cloth may be thrown

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* *See Engineering News*, Dec. 29, 1904, for a frame modeled after a

over the head to exclude all light except that which comes through the glass.

(7) Maps may be photographed—a method chiefly used for producing small copies for printed reports by the method of photo-reproduction.

Only methods (2), (4), and (7) can be used for copying to a different scale from that of the original map. Method (3) is the most common, since any number of prints can be made from one tracing. Method (4) is used a good deal for drawing portions of government maps to larger scale. Method (5) is particularly useful in city work, such as transferring plots of buildings from one sheet to another.

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photographer's retouching frame, and also for a rough-and-ready expedient. for camp use made from a light placed in a box or barrel, with a piece of glass across the top.

CHAPTER XLII

FINISHING THE MAP

FINISHING the map includes such work as inking, tracing, shading, coloring, lettering, water-lining, putting on conventional signs, designing titles, drawing meridian needles, ruling border lines, and cleaning the drawing. Directions and suggestions for this work are given in this chapter.

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532. Requirements for Maps. Certain requirements common to all good maps are given below, followed by additional requirements to be kept in mind when drawing maps for special purposes.

(*a*) *Specifications for workmanship.* (1) Clean-cut ink lines accurately drawn (p. 446)—plain unmistakable figures (p. 27) —good lettering (p. 507)—symmetrical and orderly arrangement (p. 504)—neat appearance.

(*b*) *What in general should appear on a map.* (1) A neat, explicit title. (2) The scale given in figures and also drawn on the map. (3) A meridian needle showing the direction of the *true* meridian, or two needles showing the direction of the true and of the magnetic meridian, *with the magnetic declination given in figures.* (4) Important data such as the date and the name of the surveyor. (5) A simple border line. (6) Explanatory notes. (7) A key to all symbols used.

(*c*) *Remark.* In some cases, as for example when maps are made for photo-reproduction, the scale is drawn but not given in figures. When a magnetic meridian adds nothing to the value of a map, as is often the case, it is better to draw only the true needle, and to omit the value of the declination. A note, however, should make clear that it is the true and not the magnetic needle which is shown.

(*d*) *Additional requirements for an ordinary map* will depend, of course, upon the use to which the map will be put. Assuming that this consideration governed the field work, it is probable that any data which appear in the field notes (in addition to those required for plotting) should appear also on the map. The most important requirements for an ordinary property map are. (1) Property lines indicated as such. (2) Lengths of all undary lines and character of boundaries, i.e., kinds of fences, c. (3) Angles at the intersections of boundary lines. (4) ints of intersection (boundary corners) properly referenced th respect to permanent objects, and all monuments marked such. (5) Street lines, curb lines, and building lines clearly dicated as such. (6) Property lines of adjoining land which tersect the boundaries of the tract surveyed shown and gles given. (7) At least one boundary line properly referced (by offsets and bearing if possible, see remark, p. 203).) Names of the proprietors of adjoining land. (9) Names of reets, streams, etc.

(e) *Remark.* Incomplete maps are sometimes as bad as inaccurate ps, and are frequently the cause of boundary disputes. In some states od laws exist prescribing what shall appear on a map before it will be eived for public record. Among such requirements, in addition to ose given above, are: The certificate of the surveyor that the plat is orrect one, and that the monuments described in it have been planted therein described; also the acknowledged signatures of all persons ssessing title to any of the land in the tract, and, sometimes those of joining owners.

In a paper on *The Ownership of Surveys and what Constitutes a Survey d Map* Professor William G. Raymond discusses the requirements for a od map, and makes some particularly valuable suggestions concerning ps intended for public record. This paper originally appeared in e *Polytechnic*, the student journal of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, d is reprinted in Professor Raymond's *Plane Surveying* and also in Prossor Johnson's book on surveying.

(f) *Requirements for topographic maps* in addition to those ready given are: (1) Contours shown and plainly marked ith elevations (p. 518). (2) Different topographic features dicated by conventional signs (p. 519). (3) Datum (actual assumed) given in a note (p. 527). (4) Different portions the map tinted with different colors (p. 522). This last quirement is for a limited class of maps only.

(g) *Remark.* Maps for special purposes must meet special requirements, us, for example, on page 211 are given the requirements for a map de for an architect. Entirely different data must be given on maps use in landscape work, mining, railroad work, and court proceedings. e aim should be to make maps for such purposes explicit and complete a working drawing, with all necessary dimensions and explanatory tes.

533. The General Method of Procedure in finishing a map ter it has been plotted in pencil may be outlined as follows:) Decide upon the general arrangement of border lines, ttering, etc., and draw the working-limit line. (See the next ticle.) (2) Ink in the main lines such as street lines, boundary es, etc. (p. 506). (3) Ink in details such as buildings, reams, etc. (4) Letter the map, putting on dimensions and e small single-stroke lettering first, but sketching the names of streets, streams, property owners, etc., in pencil if there is any likelihood of the small lettering interfering with or crowding the principal names (p. 506). (5) Finish the conventional signs if there are any. (6) Print the title and explanatory notes (p. 523). (7) Draw the meridian needle and the scale (p. 526). (8) Draw the key or legend, if one is necessary.

Note. The above method of procedure may be followed whether the map is traced or inked directly on the drawing paper. If, however, the map is to be tinted, the tints may be laid on before inking, though many engineers prefer to use waterproof ink and to lay on the tint after inking.

534. Arrangement. (*a*) *Border lines.* Draw the border lines in pencil. If they are to be square with the points of the compass (a question discussed on page 490) one side of the rectangle is either drawn parallel to a meridian line or else plotted from a line of known bearing. If the directions of border lines are immaterial, draw the smallest rectangle consistent with a good arrangement of the map as a whole. Space must be provided for a title, a meridian needle, and the necessary explanatory notes. Draw a pencil guide line about ½ in. inside of the border line; no line of the map should extend beyond *this* working limit. Draw another pencil line from 1 to 1½ in.

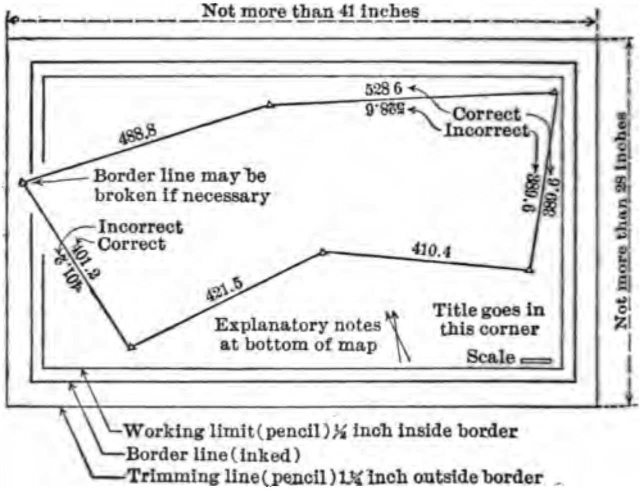
Not more than 41 inches
528.6
528.6
Correct
Incorrect
488.8
Border line may be broken if necessary
Incorrect
Correct
401.2
401.2
421.5
410.4
380.6
380.6
Explanatory notes at bottom of map
Title goes in this corner
Scale
Not more than 28 inches
Working limit (pencil) ½ inch inside border
Border line (inked)
Trimming line (pencil) 1½ inch outside border

FIG. 534.

outside of the border line which will be the edge of the finished drawing after it is trimmed. Avoid making a map square, or with its vertical edge much longer than its horizontal edge. In Fig. 534 the over-all dimensions are such that the tracing will fit inside of a standard blue-print frame designed for sheets of "double-elephant" size. (See p. 523 for inking border lines.)

(*b*) *Lettering.* Having decided which edge of the map is to be the top (see p. 490), print words and dimensions so that they can be read when either the bottom or the right-hand edge of the map is held next to the body, i.e., print from left to right and from the bottom upward. In only one case should the printing read downward—when the line extends in the general direction of a diagonal from the upper left-hand corner to the lower right-hand corner of the map. (See p. 517.) It is a very common mistake for beginners, working from different edges of the drawing-board, to put on dimensions and words upside down, especially dimensions. (See Fig. 534.)

(*c*) *Titles.* The best place for a title is in the lower right-hand corner, for in searching through a pile of maps it is convenient to raise simply the lower corner of each map without disturbing the pile until the title of the map sought for is exposed to view. Frequently, however, there is no room for a title in the lower right-hand corner, or there is a much larger vacant space elsewhere in which it is desirable to place the title for the sake of a symmetrical appearance. For the same reason the meridian needle and explanatory notes are placed in the most open space, though as a rule the explanatory notes should be near the title, and the meridian needle near the bottom of the map. *Never place the title inside of the property mapped.* (See page 523 for size of title.)

(*d*) *Names of streets, streams, property owners,* etc., are placed in vacant spaces where they will catch the eye, but not where they will obscure any part of the map. If possible place the names of a street in the center of that street, and the name of a property owner parallel to the boundary line between his land and the property mapped.

(*e*) *Final suggestions for arrangement.* (1) Put on necessary dimensions before printing words, and do not put on either until the lines of the map have been inked. (Note an exception in section lining, p. 522.) (2) Ink the border line last—it may have to be changed slightly. (3) When working on the miscellaneous small lettering, plan to leave space for the names which require large letters—it is frequently expedient to sketch the latter roughly in pencil first.

535. Inking. (1) Make sure that the ruling pen is in good working order before beginning to ink (p. 440). (2) Make the lines clear cut and fairly heavy especially on tracings—the general tendency is to make lines too light (p. 451). Widths of lines may vary according to their importance, but use the same width of line for like details. (3) Be careful to follow the pencil lines exactly. Of what avail is it to plot accurately in pencil only to lose accuracy in inking? (4) Follow the general directions for inking, page 446. (5) Ink the lines in the order of their importance, the most important lines first. (6) Edges of streams and similar indefinite lines should not be ruled but should be drawn free-hand zigzagging. Use a ruling pen or a contour pen for free-hand work to secure a uniform width of line. (7) The map will "stand out" better if portions of the outlines of details are drawn heavy, i.e., if outline shading is employed, as in working drawing. (See the next article.) (8) It is not customary to ink the traverse lines, but if they are shown at all they are usually drawn in red ink. If it is desired to show the location of stations this may be done without inking the traverse lines by merely drawing a very small circle in red ink around each station point; small equilateral triangles are used for triangulation stations. In some maps such as those of mines it is important to show all stations. (9) The dashes in broken lines should be short and close together, thus: - - - - - - - -

536. Outline Shading. City blocks, buildings, bridges, outlines of land against water and similar objects should be shaded as *projections*, while streams, lakes, streets, and roadways should be treated as *depressions*. Thus, for example, if the top of the map is north, the *south* and *east* sides of a building are the heavy lines, while in the case of a stream it is the *north* and *west* banks that are shaded. In the free-hand shading of coast lines or roadways, half or quarter strength shade lines at the proper angle are sometimes used.

537. Use of Colored Inks. Lines which represent existing features are almost invariably drawn in black, but proposed changes, such as a new layout for a road or a change of grade *for a street,* are usually shown in red. Contour-lines are frequently drawn in sepia or seal-brown, and water-lines in blue (except on tracings). These are the principal colors used unless a map is tinted. On special maps additional colors are used to bring out different features, as, for example, when the workings in the different levels of a mine are shown on the same plan and a different color is used for each level. Dimension lines are usually drawn in red with *black arrow-heads.*

(*a*) Prepared colored inks furnished in bottles are often unsatisfactory and deteriorate rapidly. Test by drawing several lines as wide as will be required on the map. If the ink seems thin and gathers at the end of the stroke, leaving the end of the line a more pronounced color than other portions, it should be rejected. If water-proof qualities are not desired the most satisfactory colors can be obtained by mixing water-colors with just enough water to make the mixture flow readily from the pen. Use scarlet vermilion for red, burnt sienna for brown, and Prussian blue for blue.

538. Tracings. General directions for tracing are given on p. 451. Most of the directions for finishing a map in ink (Art. 535) apply also to tracing. If colored inks are used it should be remembered that colors known as "earths," such as deep yellows and browns, will give the whitest lines on blue-prints, while blues will almost vanish in printing as they offer little resistance to the sun's rays. Many of the prepared red inks will give only faint lines, but a scarlet vermilion water-color (Art. 537 (*a*)) will give fairly white lines.

When the map has been traced on the smooth side of the cloth a nice finish can be given by rubbing colored pencils on the reverse or rough side, using the conventional tints given on page 523. Hold the pencil flat to spread the tint quickly and evenly, then use an old dried-up eraser to rub the color down until it is free from streaks and as uniform as a wash tint. Too soft an eraser will take the tint off instead of rubbing it in. Finish by rubbing with a cloth. The tracing-cloth will only take about so much color. Lighter tints may be obtained by rubbing less color on in the first place. For streams and bodies of water the deepest blue is near the shore-lines and this is gradually worked out to almost no color in the center. Sometimes excellent effects may be obtained by section-lining in color instead of spreading colors evenly. For lettering tracings by shifting letters underneath see page 517.

539. Lettering.* Good lettering does not depend to such an extent as is generally supposed upon ability to handle a pen. If letters are properly formed, well proportioned, and well spaced the general effect will be pleasing even though the strokes are made free-hand and are ragged. A knowledge of the essentials of good lettering is all the more important when the ruling-pen and straight-edge are used, for the mere fact that the letters are not drawn free-hand indicates that an extra effort was made to do good work, and hence extra-good results may be expected. Letters in the same word belonging to different styles of alphabets, and letters too wide or too narrow for their heights, are defects which show ignorance, and no mere skill in execution can atone for this. A knowledge of the forms and proportions of the letters in at least one good standard alphabet, such as the Gothic, may be gained in a very short time and will go far toward helping the beginner to do satisfactory lettering.

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* The single-stroke system of lettering has already been explained on pages 24 to 29, and hence this article deals mainly with letters which cannot

(*a*) STYLE OF LETTERS. Letters on maps should be simple. Ornate letters indicate extra effort to produce good effects, and when they are poorly executed, as they frequently are, the failure is more pronounced than if only a simple dignified style had been attempted. Poor lettering may ruin the appearance of a map, but it is not necessary to go to the other extreme and to give to lettering an undue prominence. Too often time wasted in ornamental lettering could have been used to advantage in plotting the map more accurately, and occasionally such lettering is used to impress the uninitiated with the excellence of a very poor map.

There are two standard alphabets which form the basis of map lettering, i.e., *Gothic* and *Roman*. Capital letters of the Roman style are simple and very effective. They are perhaps

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be made with single strokes. It is not the intention to treat the subject of lettering in detail, but rather to guide the student in his study of books on lettering, especially those recommended below.

"Lettering," by C. E. Sherman, C.E. (Midland Publishing Co., Columbus, Ohio). Especially good for forms and proportions of letters, for order and sequence of strokes in forming letters, and as an all-around book on map lettering.

"Lettering for Draftsmen, Engineers, and Students," by Charles W. Reinhardt (The D. Van Nostrand Publishing Co., New York). Especially good for single-stroke free-hand lettering.

"Plain Lettering," by Professor Henry S. Jacoby (Engineering News Publishing Co., New York). Gives in detail the exact form and proportions of letters of different styles, and also definite rules for spacing. Especially adapted for exact work with instruments.

"Free-Hand Lettering," by Victor T. Wilson, M.E. (John Wiley & Sons). An admirable presentation of "the development of a letter, a word, or lines of words by the sketch method, analogous to that used in other *free-hand drawing*.

nost beautiful of all letters, but the spurs, delicate serifs, hair-lines are difficult to draw, and if not executed well are especially noticeable because the eye is so accustomed ıe comparatively perfect forms in ordinary type. The ənt is therefore advised to adopt the Gothic style and to to it until he has become skillful enough to undertake the :. One alphabet thoroughly mastered will pave the way ıother. Letters may be drawn upright or inclined. It is what easier to secure a uniform appearance if the letters inclined, since slight variations from the standard slope ess noticeable than equal variations from the vertical.

) THE GENERAL METHOD OF PROCEDURE is to draw top and ɔm guide-lines in pencil, to block out the letters with a sharp il, and then to ink them with a writing-pen. Even an expert lly requires a bottom guide-line, and the beginner will need at the top also.

) THE SIZE OF LETTERS depends upon the importance of ɔbject described, the scale of the drawing, and the size of map. The following proportions are approximately those ested by Professor Charles McMillan:*

Scale	Height of Largest Upright Capitals	Height of Small Letters for Explanatory Notes
or 1 inch= 50 ft.	0.6 inch	0.12 inch
or 1 inch=200 ft.	0.5 inch	0.10
or 1 foot=1 mile	0.4 inch	0.06 inch

. the author's judgment the heights given above for capital rs should be reduced 0.1 inch in each case. Gothic capitals inch high are large enough for most maps, and often 0.3 is a better height.

'equently it is the size of the map and not the scale which rmines the heights of letters. Thus another writer suggests "As a rule no letter should exceed 0.03 of the length of shorter border of the drawing on which it appears." It ld seem as if this rule places the limit too high for ordinary s, and that $\frac{1}{60}$ of the length of the shorter border is a better imum height for letters. The tendency is to make letters large—they should not "stare one in the face" upon pick- ıp a map.

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* Sherman's "Lettering," p. 13.

(*d*) PROPORTIONS OF LETTERS. **A good unit used in proportioning letters is** *one-sixth* **the height, and the width of a letter may be expressed in terms of this unit. The widths of Gothic capitals may be given as follows:** *

J is	4	units	wide
L is	4¼	"	"
F, **H**, **N**, **P**, and **U** are	4½	"	"
B, **E**, **R**, and **S** are	4¾	"	"
D, **T**, **V**, and **Z** are	5	"	"
A, **C**, **G**, **K**, **O**, **Q**, **X**, and **Y** are	5½	"	"
M is	6	"	"
W is	7½	"	"

The letter **I** is one unit wide, and this is the width of the stems of all of the letters. Although the first step in proportioning a letter is to determine its width, it is also necessary to observe other proportions. These proportions may be studied from a chart in which each letter is outlined upon a surface divided into unit squares. (See pp. 511 to 515.) In ordinary work letters are so small that these squares *are not drawn*, proportions being estimated by eye. Proportions are arbitrary and may be varied, but until the beginner has acquired a sense of proportion, he should be guided by the letters in Plates I to VI, pp. 511 to 515.

(*e*) PENCILING THE LETTERS. Use a hard pencil with a sharp point. Penciling should be done with care, for if the letters are not well proportioned and well spaced in pencil they are seldom improved in inking. When the Gothic letters are too large for single strokes proceed as follows: (1) Rule top and bottom guide-lines. (2) Place a dot ⅙ of height above bottom guide-line, thus estimating once for all the unit for proportioning and for the thickness of stems. (3) Block out the letters in pencil, using limiting verticals or "width-lines." The distance between the "width-lines" for any letter is given above in units of ⅙ the height; to estimate this distance draw the left-hand width-line and place a dot on one of the guide-lines 6 units to the right, as if the letter were to occupy a square, then cut off or add to this square the necessary space according to whether the letter is narrower or wider. This is ne by eye, no measurements being made. It is better to ish one letter before drawing the width-lines for the next in der to space correctly. In drawing any letter there are two ings to observe: (*a*) the sequence of strokes and (*b*) the acing of dots to secure proper proportions. Thus in the **H**, ate I, the first four strokes are vertical strokes and the dot lf-way up is made before strokes 5 and 6. In most letters e strokes on or near the width-lines are made first, followed parallel strokes. In letters like **M**, **N**, **K**, **W**, and **Y** the acing of one or more guiding dots is very important.

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* Sherman's "Lettering," p. 8.

Remark. The directions given are for lettering on paper. In lettering tracing-cloth many devices may be used for shortening the work, such r example as a sheet ruled in squares to slip under the cloth, or one on hich inclined lines have been ruled to aid in getting inclined lettering the proper slope.

(*f*) A STUDY OF THE GOTHIC CAPITALS in detail is given below.* he order of strokes may be varied somewhat, but in practicing is well to observe that given below for each letter. Consult e letters in the upper row of each plate for proportions, and ose on the lower row for methods of construction. Peculiari es of some of the letters can be learned easily at the outset— r example: the horizontal bars of **H**, **E**, **F**, and **B** are more an half-way up, while those of **P** and **R** are not; **O**, **C**, **G**, d **Q** are slightly higher than other letters, extending above e top and below the bottom guide-lines; **B**, **E**, **K**, **S**, **X**, d **Z** are not so wide at the top as at the bottom; strokes and 6 of the **M** do not meet 3 and 4; stroke 5 in **K** does *not* art from the vertical stem.

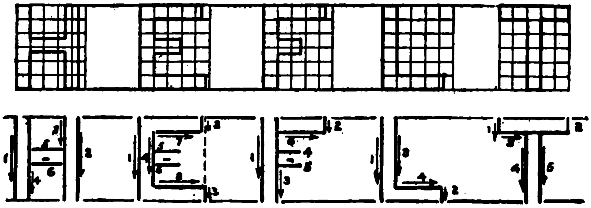

PLATE I

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* With the kind permission of Professor Sherman the drawings in this ticle have been modeled after similar figures in his book on lettering, d the directions for forming the letters which accompany the cuts on . 512–515 are taken verbatim from pages 27 and 28 of that book.

H After cutting off 1½ stems from a square to obtain the circumscribing rectangle, the strokes are as indicated, 1 and 2 coinciding with the left and right sides of the rectangle respectively. Strokes 5 and 6 are correctly placed by first bisecting the height with a dot—the bar to be slightly above mid-height.

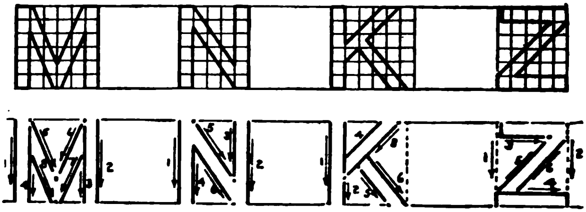
E The middle bar is placed by the use of a dot as in **H** and is half the length of the bottom bar. The top bar is ¼ unit shorter than the bottom one.

F Central bar placed slightly above the middle as above, and is half the length of the top bar.

L Cut off 1¾ units from a square to get its width. If the next succeeding letter in a word is **A**, narrow the **L** to 4 units.

T Bisect stroke 3 with a dot to guide strokes 4 and 5.

Plate II



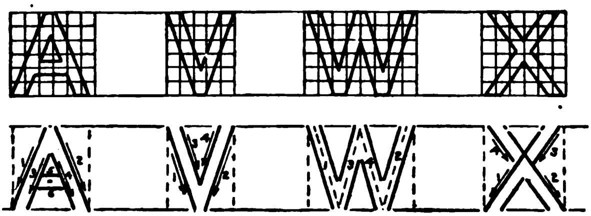
M Is somewhat difficult to draw neatly, the trouble being to keep the junction of the inclined and vertical stems from being too thick without making the middle opening appear too large. After strokes 1, 2, 3, and 4 place a bisecting dot on the lower guide Above this 1¾ units, about, place another dot, and strokes 5 and 6 join this dot with points on the top guide about ¼ of a space from 3 and 4. Strokes 7 and 8 are parallel to 6 and 5 respectively, making the inclined parts a unit thick. This should make the width of the middle portion on the lower guide less than a unit.

N After strokes 1, 2, 3, and 4 place dots at unit distances from 1 and 2, as shown at top and bottom. Stroke 5 begins at the dot on the top guide and ends on stroke 3 at a trifle less than two units from the bottom. Stroke 6 is parallel to 5 and must end on the lower dot. The inclined stem must not be *over a unit* thick.

K After strokes 1 and 2 place a dot on 2 two units above the bottom. Place a dot on the top guide half a unit from the right side, and 3 joins this point with the dot on 2. On the lower guide place a dot 1½ units from the right side, and another on 3 at 1½ units from 2 to guide stroke 5. Strokes 4 and 6 are parallel to and unit distance from 3 and 5 respectively.

Z After strokes 1, 2, 3, and 4 place a dot on 3, 1½ units from the right side. Stroke 5 joins this dot with the left end of 4. Stroke 6 is parallel to and unit distance from 5, but must end at the intersection of 3 and the right width-line; some shifting of strokes 5 and 6 may be necessary to secure this.

Plate III



A Find its rectangle, bisect the top by a dot which guides 1 and 2. After drawing 3 and 4, place a dot 2 units from the bottom; strokes 5 and 6 are equidistant from this dot.

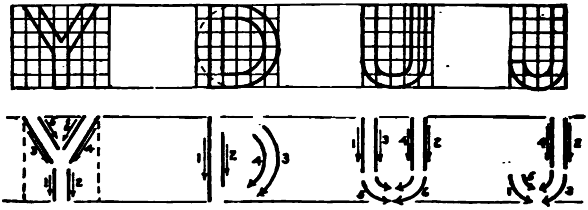
The vertexes of **A** and **V** may be made slightly less than one unit wide, but should not be wider than a unit.

V Bisect the bottom of its rectangle by the dot which guides 1 and 2. Strokes 3 and 4 are simply parallel to 1 and 2 and at unit distance as shown.

W Mark off the proper rectangle by adding 1½ stems to a square, then place dots on the lower guide about 2 units from the width-lines, and a bisecting dot at the top. These dots guide the auxiliary strokes 1, 2, 3, and 4 which guide the outlines.

X Place dots on the upper guide 1½ units from the width-lines. Strokes 1 and 2 join these dots with the lower corners as shown. Strokes 3 and 4 are parallel to 1 and 2 respectively and at unit distances.

PLATE IV



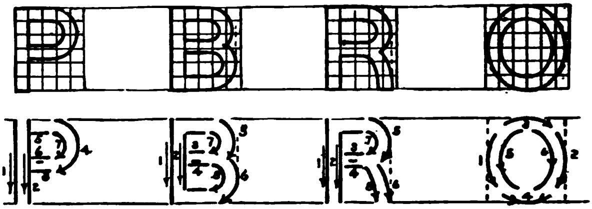
Y Find the center of its rectangle quickly by eye, and place a dot half a unit below; this guides 1 and 2 (a unit apart), and marks their upper extremities. Strokes 3 and 4 join these upper extremities with the upper corners as shown.

D Requires no special instructions except to say that it is helpful to use bisecting dots to guide the curved strokes. Thus, a dot should be placed midheight on the right width-line, and stroke 3 is then made symmetrical with this dot.

U The outside strokes may be made first if desired instead of following the order given.

J Stroke 1 should begin 2¼ units above the bottom.

PLATE V

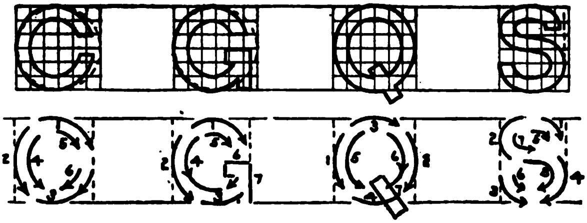


P, **B**, and **R** The middle horizontals in these letters are guided by first placing dots at midheight. In **P** the bar is a trifle below the middle, in **B** a trifle above, while in **R** it may be placed in the middle.

O, **C**, **Q** As in the Roman forms, the exteriors of the curved letters are better drawn first, in some such manner as shown *before the interior* strokes are made. Use width-lines and

bisecting dots, which help in making the exterior strokes symmetrical.

PLATE VI



G Stroke 6 is but ¼ unit below the center.

S One method of making the strokes is given; but methods of drawing this letter vary considerably with different draftsmen. Stroke 3 should begin 2 units above the guide. The middle portion of the letter should be almost horizontal.

All Gothic curved letters, also, should extend a trifle above and below the guide-lines to cure optical defects.

(*g*) INKING THE LETTERS. The inking, if free-hand, is done with a writing-pen. Among the pens recommended are Gillott's 303 and 404, and Leonard's ball-pointed pen. The student should try a number of different styles until he finds one that suits him. A pen will work better after it has been "broken in" or slightly worn. A pen-holder with a large grip is the best for lettering.

Begin by inking the pencil outline, taking care to keep the outside edges straight—if the inside edges are ragged it does not matter, provided the space between outlines is to be filled in solid. *Keep inside of the pencil lines.* In filling in, use long strokes. After a letter is dry, corners may be made square and other imperfections touched up, although very little of this should be necessary. Wipe the pen frequently, and do not overload it with ink. Keep a piece of paper tacked to the board to try the pen on and thus start the even flow of ink. Shields are useful in erasing portions of letters (p. 448). *Keep the stopper in the ink-bottle* to exclude dust, to prevent the ink from deteriorating, and to save the drawing in case the bottle is upset.

When the extra time required is warranted, the outlines may be inked with ruling-pen and compasses. Special effort should then be made to secure clean-cut corners and smooth curves.

(*h*) COMMON DEFECTS. (1) The beginner almost always makes Gothic letters too heavy and clumsy. The letters outlined in ink seem correct, but after the outlines have been filled in solid black, the stems are too thick. This is because the thickness of the outlines is added to the space between them. Avoid clumsy letters by making stems slightly narrower in pencil than seems necessary. (2) Another common tendency is to make stems which are curved or inclined thicker than those which are vertical and horizontal, hence such letters as **O**, **U**, **M**, and **W** are apt to be too heavy. (3) Great care is necessary to avoid a too heavy appearance at acute angles, as, for example, at the bottom of the **V**, and at the junctions (top and bottom) of **M**, **N**, and **W**.

(*i*) SPACING.* Aim to space the letters in any word so that the same area of white paper will show between letters. This is the first and most important rule, *but it does not mean that letters should be spaced equal distances apart,* for if they were, letters like **L** and **A** which do not entirely fill the limiting rectangle will often appear separated from other letters. Thus, for example, one of the most difficult words in which to space letters correctly is **LAW**. Whenever the letter **L** is adjacent to a letter like **A** or **W** it is necessary to close up the space, and sometimes to shorten slightly the horizontal stem of the **L**. Likewise when any letter which does not fill its rectangle occurs in a word it may be necessary to close up slightly the space on either side. The closer letters are together, the more this is necessary. When the space between letters is two or three times the width of a single letter the distances between the centers of letters may be made equal without offending the eye.

Ordinarily the space between two words should be at least twice as great as the normal space between two letters When a punctuation-mark is used this space should be measured from the mark, thus increasing slightly the space between words. The space should be still larger if the punctuation-mark is a period.

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* *See* Sherman's "Lettering," p. 10, and Wilson's "Free-hand Lettering," *p. 28.*

In lettering tracings it is often best to sketch the outlines on paper first, and then, by shifting the paper back and forth underneath the tracing, to correct any defects in the spacing of letters or words. This method is especially useful when several lines of unequal length are to be centered with respect to a vertical axis of symmetry, as in printing titles. (See p. 524.)

Remark. Rules for proportioning and spacing should not be followed blindly. They are intended, chiefly, to guide the beginner to a proper sense of harmony in lettering, without which no set of rules is of much avail.

540. General Suggestions for Lettering Maps. (1) The general arrangement of the lettering (Art. 534, p. 504) requires that words be printed from left to right or from the bottom up except when the general direction is that of the line *AB* in Fig. 540. (2) Aim to make as much of the lettering as possible parallel to the bottom border-line, or, if this is impracticable, parallel to the side border-lines. An exception is the lettering along property lines. (3) In general, words should be in straight lines, although there are many exceptions as, for example, the name of a curved street or of a winding river. Words greatly extended like the names of towns are often in long sweeping curves. When a word is on a curve the axes of the different letters should be radial lines unless the letters are of the inclined type.* (4) When there are two lines of words and it is not desired to center them, it is often better to start the second line so that it will extend beyond the first. This applies especially to descriptive matter in single-stroke lettering which is a little too long for a single line. (5) Names or descriptions should be placed in such a position that there will be no doubt as to where each belongs, either between the boundary-lines of an object, as in the case of a street or a river, or just above, as in the case of a narrow stream, or to just the right of a conventional sign, as in the case of a small building. Avoid a crowded appearance. (6) In printing values of angles *never omit zeroes.* Thus 0°-08′ is correct, but not 08′ or 8′.

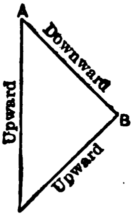

FIG. 540

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* See Sherman's "Lettering," p. 11, and Reinhardt's "Technic of Mechanical Drafting," p. 14.

Likewise in linear measurements 0.8 ft. or 0′.8 is correct, but not .8′. (7) There is danger of reading angular measurements for linear measurements, or *vice versa*. To avoid this always place a dash between degrees and minutes. Thus, for example, 129°–41′ cannot be mistaken for 129′.41 (feet). (8) Since every line has two bearings, in printing the bearing along any line (especially a property line) it is well to draw a short arrow parallel to that line and pointing toward the end which is the *forward* end for the bearing given. (9) Prominence should be given to lettering according to the importance of the object described. Prominence may be gained in several ways, viz.: (1) By increasing the width of letters; (2) by increasing the weight; (3) by increasing the height; (4) by increasing the spacing; (5) by changing the style, and (6) by italicizing.

541. Contour-lines are usually drawn in brown ink or burnt sienna water-color; sometimes red ink or crimson-lake water-color is used, and occasionally contours are represented by broken lines in black ink (short dashes close together). (2) Lines should be of uniform width, just heavy enough to be distinct. They may be drawn with a ruling-pen or a contour pen, but usually the best results are obtained with a well-worn steel pen, such as Gillott's No. 303, applied with little or no pressure to yield a uniform line. (3) Every fifth or tenth contour, counting from the datum plane, should be a little heavier than the others and *also darker in color*. (4) Each accentuated contour should be marked with its elevation above or below datum, and if the map does not contain at least two such contours then every contour-line should be so marked. This contour elevation may be placed just above the line or in a break left for that purpose. The elevations should not be scattered haphazard, but should be placed nearly under each other, or, better still, along a line normal to the contours (usually a winding line). Where the figures are to be inserted in breaks, before inking draw *two* parallel guide-lines in pencil, about ⅛ in. apart and normal to the contours; when inking the *accentuated* contours stop each one at these guide-lines to give a uniform appearance to the breaks. Elevations may be marked in the color used for the contour-lines, and they should be repeated in different parts of the map wherever necessary, especially where contours change direction abruptly. Aim to *place them* where they will be of the greatest help in ascertaining the elevation of any contour on the map without delay or mental confusion. (5) Contour-lines should not be drawn across buildings, roads, or streams, and they should be turned slightly up hill just before ending at the edges of roads or banks of streams. (If a road is in "fill," the contour lines turn down hill.) (6) Intermediate contours, represented by broken lines, are sometimes inserted to show the outline of some feature of the surface not shown by contours at the regular interval, such, for example, as a summit of a hill or the bottom of a depression. (7) Common mistakes, such as drawing contours of different elevations across each other, or merging contours of the same elevation, may be avoided by remembering the fundamental principles on page 338.

Remark. In small-scale topographic maps hills and mountains are sometimes shown by "hatching" or short disconnected lines. See Reinhardt's "Technic of Mechanical Drafting," p. 37, or Gillespie, Vol. II, p. 350, or Wilson's "Topographic Surveying," p. 462.

542. Conventional Signs. On page 520 are shown some of the conventional signs used on ordinary maps, and on page 521 are some of those used on topographic maps. Most of these conventional signs may be considered standard, though some of them, especially those pertaining to fences, are subject to more or less variation.* A common fault is to make conventional signs too prominent by drawing them too large and heavy. Ordinarily, very light strokes should be used for trees and grass, and ruled lines, such as those for marshes and cultivated land, should be drawn almost as fine as the pen will work. Conventional tints are sometimes used in connection with conventional signs (see p. 523).

(*a*) *Suggestions.* (1) Instead of using conventional signs for fences it is quicker and often better to draw full lines or broken lines as preferred, and then to mark the character of the fence along each line. (2) Small water-courses, where indicated by a single line, should be drawn toward the source so as to end there with as finely tapering stroke as possible. Aim to produce a wavy effect as shown in the right-hand side of Fig. 542 (*b*), avoiding the flat meaningless style of line shown in the left-hand side of the same figure. (3) Outline shading (see page 506) may be used to advantage as shown in the conventional sign for a bridge, page 520. (4) The tufts of grass in "meadow-land," page 521, should begin and end in short light strokes of the pen, the lines radiating from a common center some distance below.

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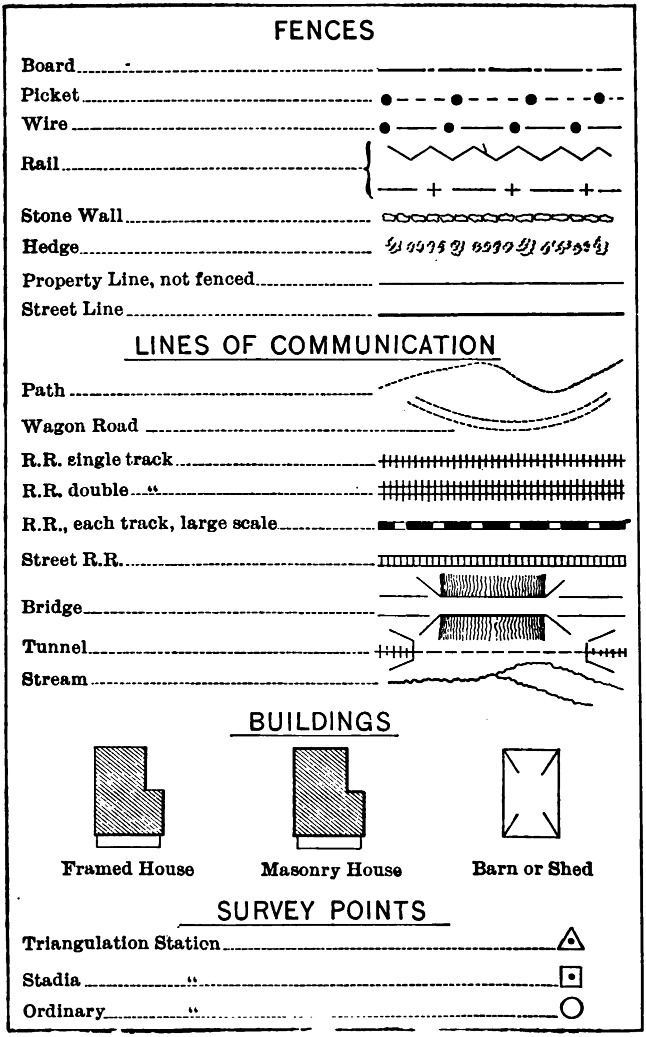
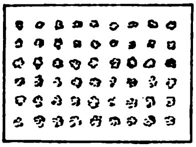
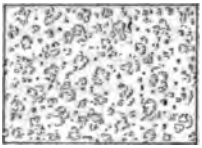
* This variation is evident from the replies to letters of inquiry addressed to city engineers all over the country. For example, many engineers employ a broken line to represent a property line not fenced, although the majority of the replies favored a fine full line.

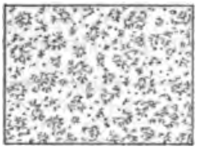

FENCES
Board
Picket
Wire
Rail
Stone Wall
Hedge
Property Line, not fenced
Street Line
LINES OF COMMUNICATION
Path
Wagon Road
R.R. single track
R.R. double "
R.R., each track, large scale
Street R.R.
Bridge
Tunnel
Stream
BUILDINGS
Framed House
Masonry House
Barn or Shed
SURVEY POINTS
Triangulation Station
Stadia "
Ordinary "



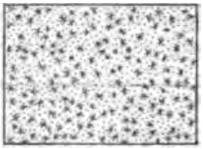
Orchard



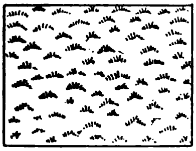
Deciduous Trees



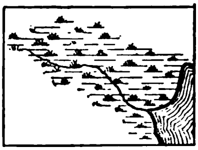
Oak Trees



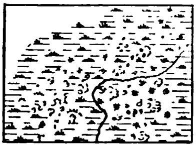
Pine Trees



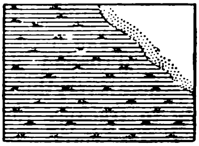
Meadow Land



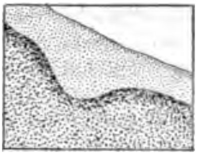
Fresh Marsh and Pond



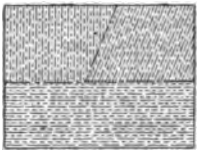
Wooded Marsh



Salt Marsh



Sand-High and Low Water



Cultivated Land

(*b*) *Water-lining* when well done adds much to the general appearance of a map, but when poorly done it is very offensive to the eye. The beginner is inclined to draw water-lines too hurriedly. Thus the effect in the left-hand side of Fig. 542 (*b*) is that of work carelessly done. In the right-hand side, on the contrary, every bend and irregularity of the shore-line was carefully followed. The shore-line is made heavy, and the first water-line drawn as close to it as practicable. The spaces between the water-lines gradually widen, and the little irregularities grow less and less pronounced. From six to ten lines will usually suffice; those farthest from shore should be drawn very lightly. Prussian blue is often used for water-lines, even on maps where everything else is drawn in black. This does not apply to tracings, for blue lines practically disappear in making process prints.

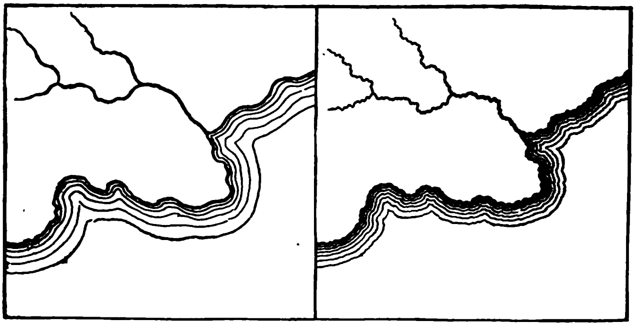


FIG. 542 (*b*).

543. Section-lining. The outline of a building on a map of large scale is frequently emphasized by section-lines, while on small-scale maps the outline is filled in solid black. Suggestions for section-lining are given on page 449. Leave open spaces for words and dimensions, so that they will not be obscured by section-lines drawn over them.

544. Tinting. General directions for tinting are given on page 449. Additional suggestions are: (1) Either tint before inking or use water-proof ink. (Note, p. 504.) (2) The tendency is to use too vivid tints. The beginner will do well to mix his *tint to what seems* a desirable shade, and then to dilute about half. (3) Tinting on ordinary maps is usually confined to filling in outlines of buildings and other structures. Occasionally roads and streams or bodies of water are also tinted.

(*a*) CONVENTIONAL TINTS *

Buildings. If of wood, sepia; for masonry, crimson lake. The outlines of wooden buildings are drawn and shaded with India-ink; outlines of masonry with a very strong tint of crimson lake. To distinguish brick from stone, make the outlines of the latter heavier or else use Payne's Gray for stone and light red for brick.

Roads. The pencil outlines are filled with a flat tint of yellow ochre, the edges being subsequently drawn in India ink.

Bridges. The outline is filled with yellow ochre, and the same distinction as to wood and masonry is observed as in buildings.

Fences are represented with India ink as in pen drawings (p. 520); *stone walls* by their outlines filled with crimson lake.

Water. Prussian blue, a flat tint. If a lower tone is desired for the map use indigo instead of Prussian blue. The surface is also outlined with a strong blue.

Remark. There are a number of conventional tints used on elaborate topographic maps to represent trees, marshes, cultivated land, sand, rocks, etc. For these colors and for a more comprehensive treatise on tinting the student is referred to a chapter on "Topographical Drawing in Color," in Lieut. Reed's book. It takes much practice to do this kind of work, and it is better to leave a map untinted than to produce crude effects in gaudy colors. The student can easily learn, however, to lay on the flat tints given above.

545. Border-lines. (1) Avoid elaborate border-lines. A single heavy line or a heavy line and a light line close together will suffice. Avoid fancy designs at the corners. (2) In drawing the border, keep in mind the size of the blue-print frame and other requirements (p. 504). (3) The heaviest line for a border should rarely exceed $\frac{1}{30}$ inch, and if there are two lines the space between may be about the width of the heavier line. (4) Follow the directions on page 447 for drawing heavy lines. For a width of $\frac{1}{30}$ inch, this means drawing two outside lines and filling in between with a third.

546. Titles.† The title is usually printed after all the other lettering on the map is finished. The best place for it is in the lower right-hand corner unless it is desired to fill up some vacant space elsewhere (p. 505). The size of the rectangle within which the title is inscribed should be *in proportion to the size of the*

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* From "Topographical Drawing and Sketching," by Lieut. Henry A. Reed, U. S. Army. (John Wiley & Sons.)

† See Sherman's "Lettering," p. 37, and Wilson's "Free-hand Lettering," p. 59.

sheet (see step (4), p. 525), and the size of the largest letters depends to some extent upon the scale used for the map (see p. 509). The general arrangement of the title should conform to the space available. The first consideration in designing a title is SIMPLICITY. *Ornate letters, scrolls, and flourishes are to be avoided.* The subject-matter is usually arranged in several horizontal lines, words which are closely related being put in the same line. The most important words in a title should catch the eye first. Prominence may be gained in several ways (see p. 518). The lines should be centered, i.e., each line made to extend equal distances each side of a common vertical line. Sometimes lines are arranged in curves, but this is to be avoided unless necessary to save space. The spaces in the clear between lines may vary, although often they are made nearly equal. If too much space is left above and below a line of small lettering this line will appear separated from the rest of the title. Avoid making two lines of the same length. The fewer styles of lettering used the neater will be the title. The tendency to use a different style of letter for each line is bad, for it gives the impression that the draftsman is trying to show what he can do. Capital letters are used almost exclusively, lower-case letters seldom appearing in well-designed titles. It is probably better to incline all the letters or to make them all upright than to have inclined letters in one line and upright letters in another. Single-stroke lettering may be used for unimportant words where letters are comparatively small. Very effective titles can be drawn free-hand, and instruments should be used only when the extra time required is warranted. The mere fact that instruments were used in drawing a title leads one to expect superior results, while slight imperfections may be overlooked in a free-hand title. All parts of a title should be finished with equal care—even the smallest lettering should be done as carefully as the largest. It is also inconsistent to take more pains with the letters in a title than with the other letters on the map. It is best not to abbreviate any word in a title.

Titles for tracings may be penciled on a small sheet of paper *without attempting to center the different lines*, and then by shifting this paper back and forth under the tracing-cloth each line can be centered with respect to a vertical axis of symmetry.

It takes considerable time to execute a good title, and to *save time* and expense various mechanical devices are sometimes used, such as a stamping outfit or a small printing-press.*

(*a*) *What should appear in a title of a map.* (1) The name or description of the tract or object represented, or its owner's name. (2) The location—town or city, county, state. (3) Scale. (4) Date of survey. (5) Name of surveyor.

If a map is made for a special purpose this should be stated, as, for example, PROPOSED LOCATION OF A HIGHWAY, or PLAN OF BUILDING-LOTS, etc.

(*b*) *Method of procedure in constructing a title.* (1) Write out the title, separating the subject-matter into lines; it is well to give such connectives as "OF THE" and "IN THE" separate lines.

(2) Number the lines in the order of their importance. Usually the name or description of the tract which the map represents is the most prominent. The connectives should be the least prominent.

(3) Choose the style of letters. Heavy Gothic capitals are recommended for the most prominent words, and single-stroke capitals of the same style for the least prominent; the difference in prominence of words between these two extremes may be effected by varying the heights of letters or in other ways (p. 518).

(4) Decide upon the place of the title and upon the approximate size of the limiting rectangle within which it should be drawn. The *maximum* dimensions for this rectangle suggested by Professor Sherman are: Length = ⅓ length of longest border-lines of the map; height = ¼ length of shortest border-lines. Frequently the limiting rectangle should be made smaller than these proportions allow. The tendency is to make titles too large and conspicuous.

(5) Decide upon the height of the largest letters (p. 509) and draw top and bottom guide-lines for the most prominent line of lettering. Draw also a vertical line to serve as an axis of symmetry.

(6) Block out roughly the letters for the most prominent line. If the position of the limiting rectangle for the title is not definitely fixed the vertical axis of symmetry may be drawn through the middle point of this line *after* the letters are completed. When, however, the position of the axis of symmetry is fixed any line of lettering may be centered as follows: Write out the line on another piece of paper, and place over each letter the number of units to allow for its width (p. 510). Estimate roughly the number of units to allow for spaces between letters and between words, keeping in mind that letters are not placed equal distances apart (p. 516). From half the sum of all the units find which letter is nearest the middle point. Beginning with this letter at the proper distance from the axis of symmetry block out the letters in the last half of the line. This gives the distance from the axis of symmetry to the end of the line; begin at an equal distance to the left of the axis and block out the letters in the first half of the line. If the letters are not properly spaced in this first trial usually only a few letters near the center need to be changed,—the chief advantage in lettering one-half the row at a time.

If the title is to be drawn on tracing-cloth the different lines can be centered by shifting the paper as explained above. Conversely sometimes a title can be drawn on a small piece of tracing-paper without *attempting to center the lines*, and then transferred to the paper on which the map is drawn (p. 500), each line being centered by shifting the tracing-paper.

(7) Having penciled the most prominent line, block out the other lines in the same way. Before inking examine the title as a whole to see if it is well balanced. If the inking is done free-hand follow the directions on page 515.

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* See *Engineering News*, Nov. 3, 1904, p. 405.

547. Meridian Needles. Simple arrows like those in Fig. 547 are best. Avoid elaborate needles and compass-points. As with border-lines and titles, simplicity should be the first aim. The true north is usually represented by a full arrow-head and the magnetic north by a half arrow-head. The direction of one of these arrows is found either from the meridian used in plotting the map or from some line of known bearing. If magnetic bearings were used, plot the axis of the magnetic needle and then lay off the declination to find the axis of the other needle, and contrariwise if true bearings were used, find the axis of the true needle first. On many maps nothing is gained by showing the magnetic meridian (see remark p. 502), but if it is shown at all, the magnetic declination should be given in figures marked along the arrow or between the two arrows as in Fig. 547. The needle should be of such length that its direction can be transferred accurately to other parts of the map —usually about 4 or 5 in. long. The arrow-head and the feather-end should both be drawn with care, slim and graceful—the tendency is to make them too clumsy. The needle may be placed near the title or in a vacant space near the top of the map.

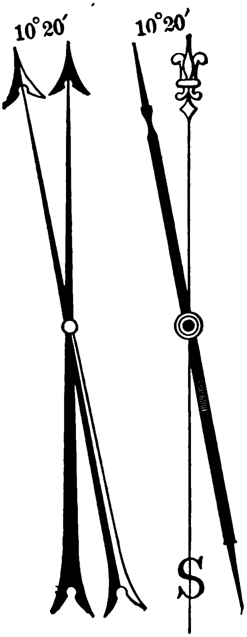

FIG. 547.

548. *Scales.* The scale of a map is usually given in figures as, for example, "Scale: 1 inch=40 feet" or "Scale: $\frac{1}{1000}$." Frequently in addition a small portion of a scale is drawn as illustrated in Fig. 548. This is most necessary for maps that are to be reproduced by photo-reproduction or by other processes which change the scale, otherwise it would be difficult to scale the reproduction. Such a scale also indicates the shrinkage or expansion in maps and blue-prints, but if designed for this purpose it should be long enough to show the change—

say 6 inches. Distances scaled from tracings and blue-prints are most unreliable no matter what method is used.

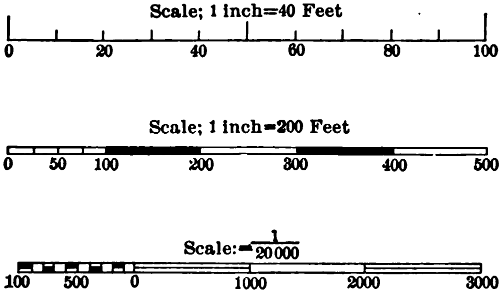

Fig. 548

549. Keys or Legends. Where conventional signs are used it is customary to draw a key near the title explaining the signs. This is especially necessary when the signs are not those commonly employed.

550. Explanatory Notes. Maps, like field notes, should be self-explaining. Anything not clear from the drawing or the dimensions should be made so by explanatory notes. The general directions in Art. 37, page 23, hold good. Notes giving general information concerning the map, such, for example, as the datum used in a topographic survey, may be placed near the title. Occasionally notes should indicate the extent to which measurements may be depended upon by giving the instruments used in the survey, the limits of error adopted, and similar information bearing on the accuracy of the work.

551. Cleaning Maps. Use a soft eraser for removing pencil lines, and a sponge eraser or bread-crumbs for taking off dirt. For tracings use gasoline or benzine. (See p. 452.)

552. Surveyor's Certificate. In filing maps for record the surveyor may be required to furnish a certificate, the exact form of which will of course vary. One form is as follows:

....
(City or Town, State, Date)

I hereby certify that the plot hereon delineated is a correct one and that permanent monuments, consisting of ...., have
(Description of the monuments)
been set at points marked MONUMENT as thereon shown at all angles in the boundaries of the land plotted, and at all intersections of streets and alleys.

................, Surveyor.
(Signature)

Another form sometimes furnished a client but not intended for public record is as follows:

....
(City or Town, State, Date)

This is to certify that I have this date made a survey of ....,
(Description of tract surveyed)
and have plotted the lines thereof on the accompanying map, which to the best of my knowledge and belief is correct.

.... Surveyor.
(Signature)

553. Filing Systems. Although it is not within the province of this book to explain the various systems of filing and indexing drawings and note-books, no discussion of office work would be complete without reference to this important subject. To one who desires to look up some of the systems which have stood the test of every-day use the following references may prove of value:

"Engineering Work in Towns and Small Cities," by Ernest McCullough (Technical Book Agency, Chicago), contains two very complete chapters on "Office Systems" and "City Engineers' Records."

Proceedings of the Connecticut Society of Civil Engineers for 1901. A description of the excellent system used in the city engineer's office of Hartford, Connecticut.

Engineering News, Sept. 5, 1901, Jan. 2, 1902, and April 23, 1903, several articles on different systems in use by railroad and city engineers.

CHAPTER XLIII

PROFILES

In this chapter are given the few directions and suggestions necessary for plotting and finishing profiles.

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554. Profile. (*a*) Suppose that in Fig. 554 (*a*) *A*, *B*, *C*, and *D*, representing four points in a straight line on the ground, were plotted to a given *horizontal* scale. Let the points *a*, *b*, *c*, and *d* be obtained by laying off *A'a*, *B'b*, *C'c*, and *D'd* equal, respectively, to the elevations of *A*, *B*, *C*, and *D* above a given datum. If the *vertical* scale used in laying off these elevations is the same as the horizontal scale used in plotting *A*, *B*, *C*, and *D* the line *abcd* is a *true* profile, bounding a *true* vertical section through the given line, and showing the rise and fall of the ground.

(*b*) As the rise and fall of the ground between two points is usually very small in proportion to the distance between those points, it is customary in plotting profiles to use a much greater scale for laying off elevations than for plotting horizontal distances, in order to make the irregularities of the surface more apparent to the eye, and to render subsequent use of the profile easier and more accurate.

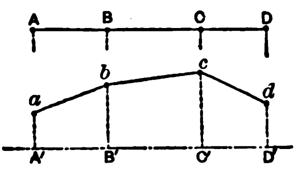

Fig. 554 (*a*)

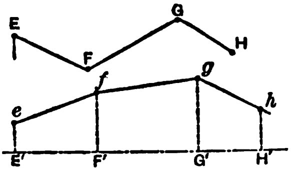

Fig. 554 (*b*)

Suppose that in Fig. 554 (*a*) the vertical scale is ten times as large as the horizontal. The line *abcd* is still called a profile, though it is no longer a *true* profile, and the section which it bounds is no longer a true section.

(*c*) Frequently in practice the line leveled over is not straight, but consists of a series of connected straight lines, as, for example, a traverse line. In Fig. 554 (*b*) *EFGH* is the plan of a traverse line, and *efgh* is the corresponding profile in which the vertical scale is larger than the horizontal. The distances *E'F'*, *F'G'*, and *G'H'* are equal respectively to *EF*, *FG*, and *GH*, but *F'G'* and *H'* cannot be obtained by projecting from *F*, *G*, and *H* respectively. In Fig. 554 (*a*), on the contrary, *A'*, *B'*, *C'*, and *D'* were projected from *A*, *B*, *C*, and *D* respectively. Hence in Fig. 554 (*a*) *abcd* represents a profile cut by *one* vertical plane, while in Fig. 554 (*b*) *efgh* represents a profile cut by a *series* of vertical planes, each of which passes through two stations at consecutive bends of the traverse line.

(*d*) *Remark.* A profile is apt to be very misleading to persons unaccustomed to the methods of plotting. Unlike a map a profile seldom represents points projected on the same plane. Moreover, when the vertical scale is much greater than the horizontal scale, slopes are greatly exaggerated, and the surface of the ground appears to be much more irregular than it really is. Likewise all objects such as manholes, culverts, rivers, roads, etc., which the profile crosses are shown distorted. It is a common experience among engineers to receive protests against a proposed grade because on the profile it appears to be too steep.

555. Profile-papers. Occasionally a profile is plotted on the same sheet with the map, but more often special paper is used upon which horizontal and vertical lines have been printed so that points may be plotted without the use of a scale. There are three standard styles of profile-papers, distinguished by the letters A, B, and C according to the number of lines or spaces to the inch. Vertical lines on A profile-paper are $\frac{1}{4}$ in. apart, and horizontal lines are $\frac{1}{20}$ in. apart, or 4 by 20 spaces to the inch. B profile-paper has 4 by 30 and C paper 5 by 25 spaces to the inch. These rulings are also furnished on tracing-paper and tracing-cloth. Cross-section paper 10 by 10 to the inch is sometimes used for plotting profiles.

Every tenth vertical line and every fifth horizontal line on profile-papers are usually accentuated for convenience in reading. The rulings are not always exactly correct, but usually the errors are so small that they may be ignored in plotting ordinary profiles, especially as the *relative* elevations are read directly from the paper and not by scaling the drawing.

556. Scale. When a profile is to be used in connection with a map it is often desirable to have the horizontal scale the same as that used for the map; sometimes, however, a larger scale is required. The vertical scale is usually exaggerated to at least five times the horizontal scale and often more, depending upon how close it is desired to read elevations. For city work such as laying out street grades or showing sewers common scales are 40 or 50 ft. to the inch (horizontal) and 6 or 10 ft. to the inch (vertical). When it is desired to show a longer distance on a sheet of given length the horizontal scale may be reduced to 1 in. = 80 or 100 ft., and the vertical scale kept the same (1 in. = 6 or 10 ft.). Common scales for railroad profiles are 1 in. = 400 ft. (horizontal) and 1 in. = 30 ft. (vertical). The following are some of the most convenient combinations of papers and scales.

	Hor. Scale	Vert. Scale	Paper	Smallest Space between V Lines	Smallest Space between H Lines
(*a*)	1 in. = 40 ft.	1 in. = 6 ft.	B	10 ft. distance	0.2 ft. elev.
(*b*)	1 in. = 50 ft.	1 in. = 10 ft.	C	10 ft. "	0.4 ft. "
(*c*)	1 in. = 100 ft.	1 in. = 10 ft.	A	25 ft. "	0.5 ft. "
(*d*)	1 in. = 100 ft.	1 in. = 6 ft.	B	25 ft. "	0.2 ft. "
(*e*)	1 in. = 400 ft.	1 in. = 30 ft.	B	100 ft. "	1.0 ft. "

There are, of course, a number of other combinations. It is desirable to so choose the paper and scale that the smallest space between vertical lines will represent some multiple of 5 ft., while the smallest space between horizontal lines will represent some multiple or decimal part of one foot. It is also an advantage to have each accentuated line stand for a multiple of 5 or 10. Thus in combination (*e*) above the smallest space between vertical lines equals a 100-ft. station, and every tenth station falls on an accentuated vertical line, while the smallest space between horizontal lines represents 1 ft. in elevation, and every fifth foot falls on an accentuated horizontal line.

557. Working Up Notes. When the level notes are brought in from the field the elevations are not usually worked out. In working out elevations the computations should be checked for the elevations on each page as the work progresses by the method explained on page 242. This is not a check, however, on the elevations of *intermediate* stations, and in some cases it may be well to work the notes up by the method of 303 (*e*), page 241 (Form D). The arrangement in Form F, page 256, is very convenient in plotting profiles, since the only two columns needed (El. and Sta.) are side by side.

558. Plotting Profiles—General Method of Procedure. (1) Choose the combination of paper and scale best suited to the purpose (p. 531), and pin the paper to the board; it is slightly more convenient in finishing the profile to have the horizontal lines true with the T square, though this is not of much advantage in plotting. (2) Glance through the level notes to ascertain the elevations of the highest and lowest points. (3) Select one of the accentuated horizontal lines for a base-line or datum line. Its position should be such that the highest and lowest points of the profile will fall on the paper. If there are no points below this line it should still be taken three or four inches from the lower edge of the paper to allow room for lettering. It may be necessary to assume the elevation of this base-line as some whole number of feet above or below datum in order to get the profile on the paper. For example, if the highest elevation is, say, 128 ft. and the lowest is above 100 ft., the elevation of the base-line may be assumed as 100 ft. (4) The profile should begin near the left-hand edge of the paper and extend towards the right. If 100-ft. stations are used, assume Sta. 0 on one of the accentuated vertical lines, or, if the profile begins at some station remote from zero, assume instead a station whose number is some multiple of 10. For example, if the profile begins at 48+21 assume Sta. 50 on an accentuated vertical line near the left-hand edge. Similarly for other horizontal scales aim to have the accentuated vertical lines stand for some multiple of ten. (5) Along the lower edge of the paper number the accentuated vertical lines to correspond to *distances*, and along the left-hand edge number the accentuated horizontal lines to correspond to *elevations*. (6) Plot each point on the profile by finding, first, its position with respect to the nearest vertical line, and then running up this line until the horizontal line is reached which corresponds to its elevation. It is well to connect the points as fast as they are found by straight lines drawn *lightly* in pencil, free-hand. (7) Check points by reading their elevations directly from the profile to see if they agree with those in the level notes. Do not check a point by reading from the level notes first and then looking at the profile, for if a mistake was made in plotting, the mind is liable to repeat it.

(*a*) *Suggestions.* Two men can work to advantage—one reads the notes while the other does the plotting. In checking they change places, the man who did the reading calls off elevations directly from the profile, while the man who did the plotting sees if they agree with the notes. (2) Use a fine pencil-point or needle-point for marking points. (3) When the profile is about to run off the top or bottom of the paper it may be stopped (preferably at some accentuated vertical line), and then continued by beginning some whole number of feet below or above the point where it was broken off. The amount that the line is thus lowered or raised should be some multiple of the interval between two accentuated horizontal lines, and the horizontal lines from the break on should be renumbered accordingly. (4) Turning-points, of course, are not plotted unless they are points of the profile. Benches are not plotted, though they are often described by notes near the points on the profile where they would be found. (5) To avoid the common mistake of plotting the elevations of turning-points and benches, go through the notes, crossing off elevations which should not be plotted. (6) Another common mistake is to plot a plus station on a vertical line as if it were a regular station instead of plotting it between vertical lines by estimating the distance. (7) When very accurate profiles are required a base-line may be laid out on drawing-paper of good quality, and the distances and elevations plotted by scale. (8) When several copies of a profile are required it may be plotted on profile tracing-paper or tracing-cloth and process prints made, or it may be transferred by pricking through, or by carbon paper, or by some similar method.

559. Profiles of Several Related Lines. Several related lines are often plotted on the same sheet, one above the other. Thus, for example, the profile of the center line of a street may be plotted about half-way between the top and bottom edges of the paper, the profiles of the right and left gutter-lines being plotted near the bottom and top respectively. In this case a different base-line is used for each profile. Another method is to plot the three profiles from a common base, distinguishing the lines by different colors, as, for example, black for the center-line, red for the right gutter-line, and blue for the left gutter-line.

560. Laying Out Grades. Proposed grades may be laid out on a profile by deciding upon points through which the line must pass, and joining successive points by straight lines. Frequently the vertical angles between these lines must be eliminated by vertical curves which may be determined by one of the methods on pages 289 to 292 and then plotted on the profile.

561. Plotting a Profile from Contours. For any line drawn across a contour map a profile may be plotted, since at each intersection of a contour by the given line an elevation is known, and the distances between these points of intersection may be scaled from the map, or, if the given line is straight, they may be projected from the map to the profile as illustrated in Fig. 398, page 338. Thus, for example, a road may be laid out on a topographic map and a close approximation to its profile may be obtained no matter how crooked or winding the road may be.

562. Finishing Profiles. Many of the directions and suggestions for finishing maps (Chapter XLII) also apply to finishing profiles, especially those that pertain to inking, lettering, notes, and titles. Additional suggestions are: (1) Draw lines representing existing surfaces in black ink, and proposed changes in red ink or broken lines. (2) When the surface represented is smooth the profile may be ruled with a ruling-pen, otherwise it should be drawn free-hand. Thus, ordinarily, the proposed changes are shown by red lines carefully ruled, while the irregularities of the existing surface are represented by a slightly wavering black line.

This irregular line though drawn free-hand should be of even width. When, however, the vertical scale is *very small* the little irregularities between any two plotted points on the profile may disappear, in which case the profile will consist of a series of straight lines each of which is ruled; to draw them free-hand might lead to inaccuracy in the use of the profile, since the surface of the ground would be represented as more irregular than it really is. (3) In inking a pencil profile composed of a series of straight lines the sharp angles may be smoothed out a little unless, as in the case of a sudden and steep incline, such angles exist on the ground. It is not worth while to do this, however, if the vertical scale is greatly exaggerated. (4) Draw the base-line in red ink. At every point of the grade-line where the gradient changes draw a dotted or broken vertical line to the base-line, and mark along this line the grade *elevation* of the point and the "plus" if the point is not a full station, thus: *Sta. 40 + 53 Elev. = 114.25.* When the elevations are those of the existing surface the figures and the broken lines should both be in black ink, but when they indicate points on a proposed surface both should be in red. Among the points where the station number and grade elevation should be marked in this manner are: At the beginning and end of the profile; at each side of an intersecting street; at each end of a bridge; at the P.C. and P.T. of a horizontal curve; at the P.C., the P.T., and the highest or lowest point of a vertical curve, and, if the curve is to be staked out from the profile, at intermediate points where the elevations have been calculated or scaled. (5) At each full station and at such points as those just mentioned mark the cut or fill along a vertical line, if possible in the space between *the black* line representing the orginal surface and the red line representing the proposed grade; or if this space is too small draw an arrow to one side and put the figures near by, thus: *C. 1.4* or *F. 2.6.* (6) The rate of grade may be printed along the line which represents the corresponding surface, or it may be put some distance below on a horizontal line drawn between vertical lines to the two points where the grade begins and ends. In the latter case the horizontal line should be shown like a dimension-line with an arrow-head at each end. (7) Sometimes, in order to make a profile stand out more prominently, a light flat tint is laid on, extending half an inch or so below the line which represents the original surface, or, in the case of a tracing, colored crayon is rubbed on the back of the cloth instead. Sometimes pencil is rubbed on a proposed profile and erased as fast as the construction is completed, thus showing the progress of the work. Occasionally it is desired to show different materials, as, for example, the different strata determined by borings. Some of the conventional signs are shown in Fig. 562.*

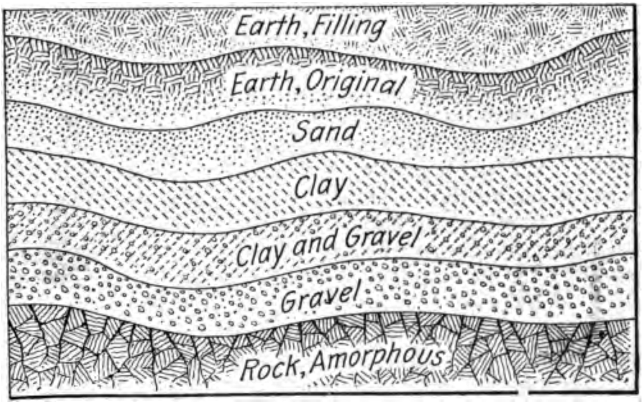

Fig. 562.

563. Lettering the Profile. Names of streets, streams, etc., and descriptions of benches, bridges, culverts, etc., should be printed *along vertical lines* directly above the corresponding points on the profile. Words should read from the bottom up, and all notes should be at least one inch above the profile line except the rate of grade, which may be printed along that line.

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* See Reinhardt's "Technic of Mechanical Drafting" (Engineering News Publishing Co.) for additional conventional signs.

Remark. On long profiles, such as those used in railway work, some engineers prefer to have the vertical lines of lettering read from the top downward so that, in consulting a partly unrolled profile, the zero or left-hand end may be held toward the body as if the eye were looking along the general line represented by the profile.

Notes should be definite but brief, as, for example, "B.M. 36. Elev = 126.192. Tack in root of Oak 30 ft. to left of Sta. 36." The elevations of the accentuated horizontal lines, and the station numbers of the accentuated vertical lines, should be in heavy black figures on the left-hand and lower margins respectively. The title should give the information specified in Art. 546 (*a*). The datum should always be given near the title. Practically all the directions for constructing a title for a map (pp. 523 to 525) hold good for profiles.

PART III

SURVEYING INSTRUMENTS*

INTRODUCTORY

564. The Study of Instruments. When the student is first learning to use an instrument it is not necessary that he should study it in detail; on the contrary, it is better for him to confine his attention to the few parts which he has to manipulate. These parts are visible and need no description. When, however, he has become somewhat accustomed to the use of an instrument, he should begin a careful study of the different parts, some of which are not visible after the instrument has been put together. Parts thus concealed are shown in the following pages by drawings or photographs. Thus in the photograph on page 551 a telescope is shown taken apart, and on page 565 a transit is shown in a similar manner. The student should not be content, however, with merely observing the construction of the different parts. He should investigate the properties of lenses, of magnetic needles, of level-bubbles, the theory of the telescope, the defects of construction, and similar subjects. In this way he will become familiar with important facts and fundamental principles which are not evident from inspection. A careful study of this portion of the subject (Chapters XLIV and XLV), should precede the study of the adjustments of instruments (Chapter XLVI).

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* For a more comprehensive treatise on surveying instruments the student is referred to Professor I. O. Baker's excellent book entitled "*Engineers' Surveying Instruments*" (John Wiley & Sons).

CHAPTER XLIV

PRIMARY PARTS OF SURVEYING INSTRUMENTS

THERE are certain primary parts, such as the vernier, the magnetic needle, the level-bubble, and the telescope, which are more or less common to all surveying instruments. These parts are discussed in this chapter preparatory to a study of the instruments themselves in the next chapter. In some cases the discussion is little more than a review of certain fundamental principles of physics.

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565. The Vernier, invented in 1631 by *Pierre Vernier,* is a device for measuring the fractional part of one of the smallest divisions of a graduated scale. It usually consists of a small sliding scale running parallel to and in contact with a fixed scale or a graduated arc. The divisions of the vernier instead of being equal to the divisions on the graduated scale or arc, are either just a little smaller or a little larger. The amount by which the smallest division on the vernier differs from the smallest division on the graduated scale or arc determines the smallest reading or *least count* of the vernier.

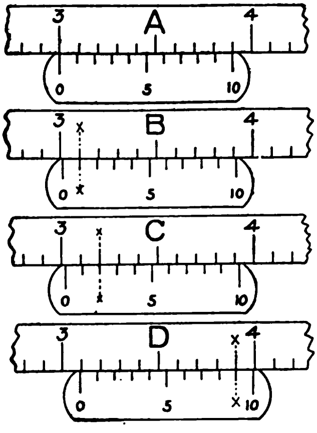

FIG. 565 (*a*).

(*a*) *Illustration.* Fig. 565 (*a*) shows at *A* a portion of a scale divided into inches and tenths of an inch, with a vernier attached. The same scale is shown at *B*, *C*, and *D*, but the vernier has been moved in each case. At *A* the vernier zero is at the 3-inch mark of the scale, and it is seen that 10 divisions of the vernier cover a space equal to 9 divisions on the scale, hence one division on the vernier is equal to $0.9 \div 10 = 0.09$ inch long, and is 0.01 inch shorter than the smallest divisions on the scale. If, therefore, the vernier is moved along the scale until the first mark on the vernier (not counting the zero) is exactly opposite to the corresponding mark on the scale (as shown at *B*), the vernier zero must

1 inch from the 3-inch mark on the scale. If moved until the sec- ıark on the vernier is opposite to the corresponding mark on the (as shown at *C*), the zero will be 0.02 inch from the 3-inch mark. by moving the vernier 0.01 inch at a time, each mark in succession oincide with a mark on the scale until, when the ninth mark is oppo-) the corresponding mark on the scale (as shown at *D*), the ver- ero is 0.09 inch from the 3-inch mark; a movement of another 0.01 vill then bring the zero of the vernier opposite the 3.1-inch mark, and ocess will begin again.

Reading the vernier. From the preceding illustration evident that when the zero-point of the vernier is between wo adjacent marks on the scale, its position may be deter- d by observing which mark on the vernier is exactly oppo- some mark on the scale. For this reason the zero-mark vernier frequently serves as an indicator for the movable of an instrument to which the vernier is fastened. For ıple, when a vernier is attached to arget of a leveling-rod (as shown on 31), the zero point of the vernier is d opposite the horizontal center line ıe target, so that when this center (and the vernier zero) stops between adjacent graduation marks on the the *fractional* reading may be ob- d from the vernier. There are al- two steps involved in the *whole* ıng, *viz.*:

) Note the position of the vernier with respect to the main (stationary) , paying no attention to the other ks of the vernier.

) Observe which mark on the vernier pposite or most nearly opposite a on the scale, and add this reading ıat obtained in (1).

Remark. Notice that the only use made vernier is in getting the small fractional ıg in step (2) and that no attention is to the value of the mark on the scale happens to be opposite a mark on the r. In reading any vernier for the first time be necessary to determine its least count plained farther on.

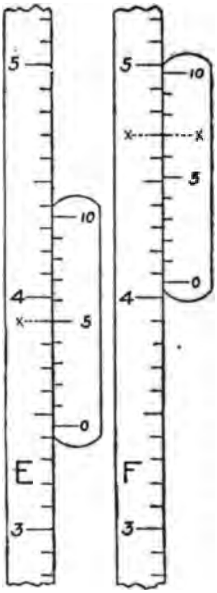

Fig. 565 (*d*).

Illustration. In Fig. 565 (*d*) the smallest division on the scale is ft., and the divisions on the vernier are each equal to 0.009 ft., or ft. less than the smallest division on the scale.

the scale marked *E* the zero of the vernier is just beyond the 0.34-ft. and the fifth mark of the vernier is opposite a mark on the scale, the reading is 0.34 ft.+0.005=0.345 ft. i.e., the vernier zero or indicator is just half way between 0.34 and 0.35 ft. On the scale marked *f* the reading is 0.40+0.007=0.407 ft. A common mistake would be to call it 0.47 ft.

Remark. In reading a vernier there are certain ***danger-points*** where mistakes similar to that indicated above are likely to occur: These points for verniers on leveling-rods are pointed out on pages 228–231, and for transit verniers on pages 76–83.

(*e*) DIRECT AND RETROGRADE VERNIERS. A *direct* vernier is one in which the smallest division on the vernier is shorter than the smallest division on the main scale. In a *retrograde* vernier a division on the vernier is longer than a division on the scale. Most verniers on surveying instruments are direct, such as those shown in Figs. 565 (*a*) and 565 (*d*).

(*f*) *Remark.* In reading a retrograde vernier proceed exactly as if it were a direct vernier, observing, however, that the divisions are numbered backward, or in an opposite direction from the numbers on the main scale. Retrograde verniers are used on leveling-rods which read *downward* from the center of the target instead of upward. (See page 230 for target verniers which are direct and hence read upward.) Retrograde verniers are also used in special forms, such as those described on page 83.

(*g*) TO DETERMINE THE SMALLEST READING or least count of a vernier: (1) *Observe how many divisions on the scale correspond to the same number plus one (on a direct vernier) or minus one (on a retrograde vernier).*

(2) *Divide the value of the smallest division on the scale by the number obtained in* (1).

In algebraic terms let d=length of the smallest division on the scale, v=length of smallest division on the vernier, n=the number of d's which added together equal $(n+1)$ v's for direct or $(n-1)$ v's for retrograde vernier. Then $nd=(n+1)v$ (direct) or $nd=(n-1)v$ (retrograde).

Hence the smallest reading of the vernier is

$$d-v=\frac{d}{n+1}\text{ (direct) or }d-v=\frac{d}{n-1}\text{ (retrograde).} \quad . \quad (1)$$

On many surveying instruments verniers are so constructed that the above rule may be simplified to:

Divide the value of the smallest division on the scale by the number of divisions on the vernier.

(*h*) VERNIERS FOR LEVELING-RODS AND TRANSITS. The principal use of the vernier in surveying is in taking target readings in leveling, and in reading angles in transit work. The verniers on targets are similar to that shown in Fig. 565 (*d*) and are fully illustrated on page 230; they should not be confused with the ordinary scale used on many targets, and illustrated on page 228.

The vernier on the transit is divided into spaces corresponding to angular measure instead of linear; the principle however is exactly the same. Illustrations of transit verniers are given on pages 78 to 82.

566. The Magnetic Needle.* (*a*) DIP OF THE NEEDLE. A needle which is perfectly balanced before it is magnetized will, after it is magnetized, dip towards the pole, and, in the northern hemisphere, the farther north the needle, the more its northern end will be attracted downward. In order to counteract this tendency, a small wire coil is placed around the needle to act as a weight on its southern half. As the dip varies in different localities this little weight may be slipped in or out along the needle to preserve a perfect balance.

(*b*) MAGNETIC DECLINATION. The magnetic needle does not point directly north except in a few localities. In some places it points west of north, in other places east of north. The meridian in which a needle properly magnetized and properly balanced comes to rest at any given place and time is called the *magnetic meridian* for that place and time, and the angle between a magnetic meridian and a true north and south meridian is the corresponding *declination of the needle* or the *magnetic declination*. In some places this declination is practically nothing, while in other places it is very large. Thus in central Ohio it is nearly zero, but in Maine it is 18° west, while in the State of Washington it is 23° east. (See Isogonic Chart.) As the magnetic meridian at any given place is continuously changing there are corresponding *variations* of declination.

VARIATIONS OF DECLINATION. (1) Secular variations, (2) diurnal variations, (3) irregular variations, (4) annual variations, and (5) lunar variations. The last two are so small that they may be neglected.

(*c*) The *secular variation* is the slow variation in the magnetic declination which takes place with the lapse of time, requiring several hundred years for its full development. This change appears to be periodic in its character, like the motion of a pendulum; that is, the compass needle, after moving continuously in one direction for a long term of years, gradually comes to a standstill, and then begins a motion in the opposite direction. Thus at Portland, Maine, the declination appears to have been 12° west in 1700, then decreasing to only 8° west in 1780, then increasing again until now it is more than 14° west.

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* For a treatise on this subject see *Magnetic Declination Tables and Isogonic Charts for 1902 and Principal Facts Relating to the Earth's Magnetism*, by L. A. Bauer (U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey).

In the work of the surveyor secular variation is very important, and unless otherwise specified it is the variation commonly referred to. The rate of variation is different for different places, and the change per year at a given place is not a constant quantity, as frequently assumed by the surveyor. The change per year (which should not be confused with annual variation) is greatest near the middle point of the swing referred to above, and becomes less and less as the extremes are approached. Thus at San Francisco, where the needle has apparently reached its extreme easterly position, the variation per year at present is almost zero.

In the eastern part of the United States declinations (west) are increasing, while in the western part declinations (east) are decreasing.

The difference in the rate of variation may be shown by taking a few cities at random:

	Approximate Annual Change in Minutes.		
	1895	1900	1902
Bangor, Me.	+1.5	+0.9	+0.1
New Haven, Conn.	+3.3	+3.0	+1.8
New Orleans, La.	+4.3	+4.3	+3.5
San Francisco, Cal.	−0.1	+0.1	+0.1

The declinations at a given place for a number of successive years are sometimes given by an empirical formula, but the various formulas for different places are not always reliable. It is better for a surveyor to determine the declination for himself at the place where he is working, by observations on Polaris, or by some similar method. (See Chapter XXVIII.)

(*d*) *The diurnal variation* is the change in the direction of the needle from hour to hour during the day, from its most easterly position of the needle at about 8 A.M. to its most westerly position at about 1.30 P.M. The needle is in its mean position between 10 A.M. and 12 M., and between 5 and 6 P.M., and hence during those periods the daily variation may usually be ignored. The amount of variation differs for different localities, and for different seasons of the year in the same locality. The total movement in the United States is from 3 to 12 minutes, and is greatest in the months of June, July, and August.

(*e*) *The annual variation* is a *cyclical* change having the year as a period, and should not be confounded with the change per year due to secular variation, for the latter is a *progressive* change. The annual variation amounts in most places to less than one minute and can be neglected for all practical purposes.

(*f*) *Irregular variations* are due to magnetic disturbances or storms which may occur at any time and cannot be predicted. Variations of this kind amounting to more than a degree have been observed.

(*g*) Isogonic lines are imaginary lines passing through places where the magnetic declination is the same at a given time. From inspection of the *isogonic chart* given in the back of this book the isogonic lines are seen to be very irregular.

(*h*) The agonic line passes through places where the declination at a given time is zero. In the United States this line passes through South Carolina, Ohio, and Michigan, and is slowly moving westward. For places *east* of this line the declination is *west* and for places *west* it is *east*. This fact is a help in remembering whether the declination for a given place is east or west.

(*i*) Local attraction is a term used to denote any influence which prevents the needle from pointing to the *magnetic* north in a given locality. In its strict sense it does not include avoidable attraction due to things about the person or to other sources not connected with the place where the needle is read. Some of the sources of local attraction are: Magnetite in the ground, trolley-wires, steel structures, railroad-rails, underground iron pipes, etc. Contrary to a common belief, iron ores do not affect the needle unless they contain magnetite or pyrrhotite. Some of the avoidable sources of attraction are: Keys, knives, steel-bowed spectacles, spectacle cases (which though covered with leather may be solid steel inside), wire in a hat brim, metal buttons, and other bits of iron or steel about the person; also axes, chains, steel tapes, etc., which may be lying on the ground nearby.

Note. In retracing an old survey made many years ago, it was found that the bearings of all the courses were incorrectly given on the original map, and the errors were so large as to indicate that something was wrong with the compass originally used. Fortunately the instrument was still in existence, and an examination disclosed the presence of a steel screw in the compass-box

567. The Level-bubble. The interior surface of the glass tube of a spirit-level should be ground so that a longitudinal section will show a circular arc. The more uniform this curvature is throughout the length of the tube the more regular will be the motion of the bubble, and the greater the radius of curvature the greater the sensitiveness of the bubble. Within reasonable limits the more sensitive the bubble the more perfect the work, though a very sensitive bubble may be too unsteady for many purposes; on the other hand a sluggish bubble, though it may give the appearance of steadiness to an instrument, and an impression that it "keeps" its adjustment, is incapable of accurate work.

The fluid used in spirit-levels is usually alcohol or ether. Pure alcohol is slow-acting, requiring some time to settle or to obtain its equilibrium, while ether is quick-acting, but is objectionable on account of too great contraction and expansion for slight changes of temperature. Some makers combine the two. Whatever fluid is used the length of the bubble changes with variation in temperature, and as the bubble grows shorter it becomes less sensitive. If the whole tube becomes overheated as it sometimes does when left in the sun, the bubble may become so short as to be nearly useless. If one end of the tube becomes warmer than the other, the tendency is for the bubble to move toward the warmer end. (See experiment, p. 227, and Art. 350 (*a*), p. 272.)

The line tangent to the circular arc of the tube at its middle point, or a line parallel to this tangent, is called the *axis of the bubble-tube.* When this axis is horizontal the bubble will be in the center of the tube. Should the axis become slightly inclined the bubble will move toward the higher end of the tube in proportion to the angle made by the axis with the horizon. The glass tube is usually graduated on top by marks 0.01 ft. apart. The value of a level-bubble is usually expressed by the change which takes place in the inclination of the axis when the bubble moves over a single space. Thus in a 1-minute level for a displacement of one division the inclination changes 1 minute, and in a 20-second level it changes 20 seconds. The value as given by the makers for any particular level is frequently found by actual tests to be erroneous. The engineer can test for himself the sensitiveness of a bubble by the method given below.

When a level-bubble is attached to a telescope the relation between the sensitiveness of the bubble and the magnifying power of the telescope should be such that the smallest vertical movement of the cross-hairs, which is visible to the eye, is followed by an appreciable movement of the bubble. For a good transit the bubble attached to the telescope should have a sensitiveness of not less than 0.01 ft. = 25″ of arc, while that of the plate-levels should be not less than 0.01 ft. = 40″ of arc. For a good wye-level or dumpy level the sensitiveness should be not less than 0.01 ft. = 15″ of arc.

Circular bubbles are sometimes used for the plumbing-levels attached to leveling-rods, and are occasionally found on transits and other instruments.

(*a*) TO TEST THE SENSITIVENESS OF A BUBBLE. Assuming that the bubble-tube is attached to the telescope of a level, the angular value of the bubble may be found as follows: (1) Set up the level and hold a leveling-rod on some point a known distance from the instrument. (2) Take two readings, one with the bubble two or three divisions to one side of the center, the other with the bubble about the same number of divisions the other side of the center. (3) The difference in readings divided by the distance to the rod is the natural tangent of the angle between the two lines of sight. Divide this tangent by the tangent of 1″ of arc (0.00000485), thus obtaining the value of the angle in seconds of arc. Divide the result by the number of divisions between the two positions of the bubble; the result is the average value in seconds of a single division.

Suggestion. (1) Set the level up in the shade with two diagonally opposite leveling-screws in the line to the leveling-rod. Change the position of the bubble by means of these screws. Probably better results will be obtained if an extra man acts as bubble-tender. (2) In measuring off a base line to the rod it saves arithmetical work to make it an even 200 or 300 ft. (3) Repeat the test, holding the rod at different distances and displacing the bubble by different amounts. (4) Any bubble-tube other than a telescope level may be tested in a similar manner by attaching it rigidly to a telescope, with its axis approximately parallel to the line of sight. (5) There are small instruments called level-triers especially designed for testing levels. (6) Draw a figure and show that if D is the distance from the instrument to the rod, R the radius of curvature of the level-tube, d the length of one division of the scale, and h the difference in two rod-readings when the bubble is moved over n divisions of the scale, then $R=\frac{nd}{h}D$.

568. The Theory of Lenses. In order to understand the construction of the telescope it is necessary first to study some of the most important properties of lenses. The different forms of lenses most used in telescopes are: (1) *Double-convex* (convex on both sides); (2) *plano-convex* (plane on one side, convex on the other); (3) *concavo-convex* (concave on one side, convex on the other). No one of these forms is used singly, but two or more are combined to correct certain defects which could not be overcome in a single lens. It is unnecessary to give here a complete statement of the theory of lenses; it will suffice to point out the principles which apply to the passage of light through a double-convex lens. These principles are in general the same for the other forms.

Remark. The figures in this article are not drawn to scale and are necessarily much distorted.

(*a*) DOUBLE-CONVEX LENSES. Each of the two surfaces of the *double-convex* lens is a portion of a sphere, and the line passing through the centers of these two spheres is the *principal axis*. If the radii of these two surfaces are equal, the *optical center* is at the geometrical center of the lens. If the lens is very thin it may be assumed that any ray of light passing through its center undergoes no deviation. The *principal focus* of a convex lens is the point of its principal axis where rays of light parallel to that axis are converged (approximately) after passing through the lens, and in the ordinary *double-convex lens* the two principal foci are on the principal axis equal distances from the optical center. Thus in Fig. 568 (I), *AA* is the *principal axis*, *C* the *optical center*, and *F* and *F'* the *principal foci*. The distance *FC*, equal to *F'C*, is the *focal length* which, for a given lens, is always constant. The focal length depends upon the curvature, not upon the size of the lens, but as large lenses usually have longer radii of curvature than small lenses their focal lengths are usually greater.

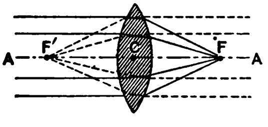


FIG. 568 (I).

Proposition I. *A cone of rays from a point located at either focus becomes a cylinder of rays after passing through the lens, the axis of the cylinder coinciding with the principal axis of the lens. Conversely rays of light parallel to the principal axis converge at a principal focus after passing through the lens.*

Illustration. In Fig. 568 (I), the full lines converge at *F* after passing through the lens and the dotted lines at *F'*.

Illustration. The rays from the sun are practically parallel, and in the familiar experiment of burning a hole in paper with a reading-glass, the rays are converged at the principal focus of the glass.

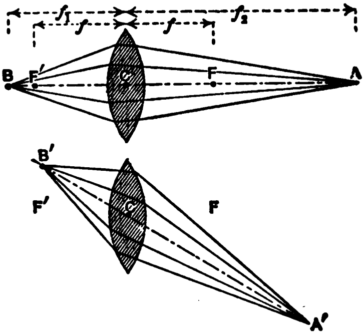


FIG. 568 (II).

Proposition II. *Rays diverging from any point converge approximately at a* REAL *focus after passing through the lens, provided the distance from the optical center to the point is* GREATER *than the focal length of the lens.*

Illustration. In Fig. 568 (II), a cone of rays from any point A beyond the focus F becomes another cone of rays after passing through the lens, converging at a point B *beyond the other focus* F'. Conversely rays from B converge at A.

Conjugate foci. If rays of light from any point converge at a second point after passing through a lens, and if, *vice versa,* rays from the second point converge at the first, the two points are called *conjugate foci.* Thus, for example, A and B in Fig. 568 (II) are conjugate foci as are also A' and B'. The line joining conjugate foci passes through the optical center of the lens. When conjugate foci are not in the principal axis the line joining them is called a *secondary axis, e.g.,* $A'B'$. If f_1 and f_2 are the distances from the optical center to conjugate foci, and f is the focal length of the lens, then from a principle of optics

$$\frac{1}{f_1}+\frac{1}{f_2}=\frac{1}{f}. \qquad (1)$$

From the above equation it is evident that *both* f_1 *and* f_2 *must be greater than the focal length.*

Proposition III. *Rays diverging from any point continue to diverge after passing through the lens as if they came from a so-called* VIRTUAL FOCUS *behind the point, provided the distance from the optical center to the point is* LESS *than the focal length of the lens.*

Illustration. In Fig. 568 (III) rays diverging from any point *G* at a distance *g less* than *f* continue to diverge after passing through the lens, though less rapidly than before. They will therefore appear to radiate not from *G* but from *H*, a point behind *G*. *H* is a conjugate focus, but the rays do not actually pass through it as in the other cases, hence it is called a *virtual conjugate focus.*

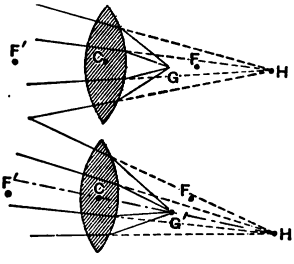


FIG. 568 (III).

(*b*) FORMATION OF IMAGES. If the source of light is an extended surface, then the cone of rays emanating from each point forms its own focus after passing through the lens; and the collection of foci constitutes an image which is *real* and *inverted* if the foci are real, but virtual and erect if the foci are virtual. The relative sizes of the object and image are sensibly proportional, if the lens is thin, to their respective distances from the optical center.

From Proposition III, if an object is between a lens and one of its principal foci, the image is virtual and erect, and is larger than the object. This is the fundamental principle upon which magnifying glasses, microscopes, and eyepieces of telescopes are constructed.

From Proposition I, if an object is at either of the principal foci, no image is formed (unless it is at infinity) for the cone of rays from any point become parallel after passing through the lens.

From Proposition II, if an object is beyond one of the principal foci, its image is real and inverted, and lies on the opposite side of the lens beyond the other principal focus. This is the fundamental principle upon which the object-glass of a telescope is constructed.

From Equation 1, if the distance from the object to the lens is less than *twice* the focal length, the image is larger than the object and at a greater distance from the lens; if the distance is *exactly* equal to twice the focal length, the object and its image are of equal size and equally distant from the lens; if the distance is more than twice the focal length, the image is smaller than the object and less than twice the focal length from the lens. In all three cases the object and its image are on opposite sides of the lens, and the image is real and inverted. The farther an object recedes from a lens the nearer its image approaches the lens, until with the object at infinity the image is at a principal focus. (Proposition I.)

(*c*) *Note.* An image formed by a single lens is never perfectly distinct on account of *spherical* and *chromatic aberrations* of the lens. The former is due to the fact that the rays of light passing through the lens near the edge converge at a point slightly nearer the lens than that in which the central rays meet; the latter to the fact that rays of different colors form their foci at different distances. Spherical aberration can be corrected by making the surfaces of forms other than spherical, or by combining two or more lenses properly proportioned; chromatic aberration only by combining two or more convex and concave lenses of different materials. Thus, for example, the objective in the telescope of a surveying instrument is an *achromatic* lens composed of a double-convex *crown-glass* and a concavo-convex *flint glass lens.*

569. The Telescope. (*a*) The telescope shown in the photograph on page 551 is similar to those used on all surveying instruments. The object-glass at *A* gathers the rays of light from an object, and forms an inverted image in the plane of cross-hairs at *DD*. The eyepiece, extending from *E* to *F*, magnifies both the inverted image and the cross-hairs. In some telescopes the image appears to be erect, while in others it remains inverted. The difference lies wholly in the eyepiece, as will be explained farther on.

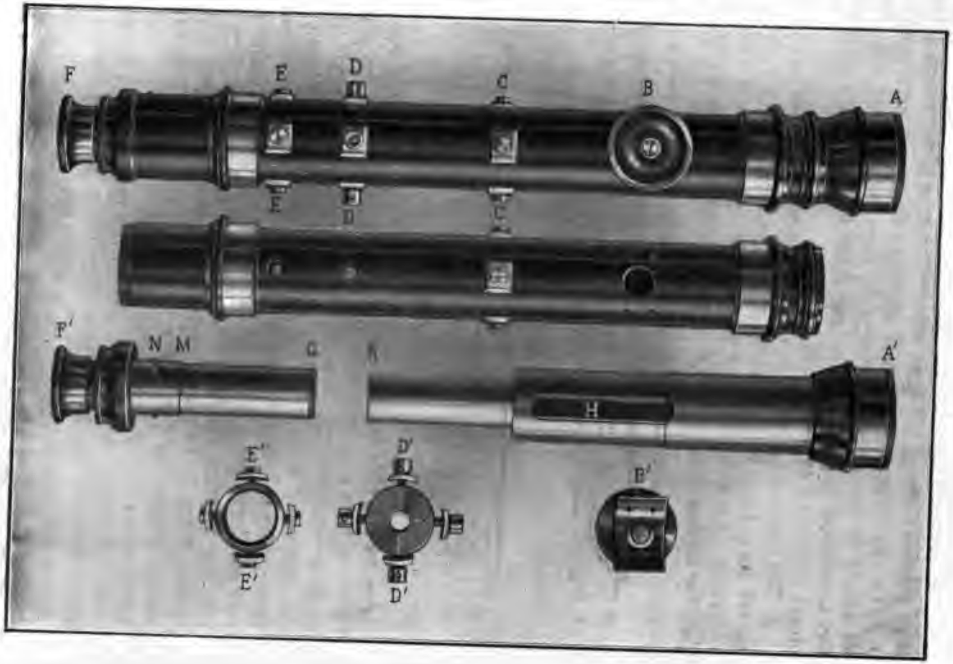
The eyepiece, shown by itself at *F'G*, is similar to a microscope. When in place, the end *G* moves through a ring at *EE*. A separate view of this ring at *E'E'* shows the four screws that hold it in place. These screws pass through smooth holes (not threaded) in the shell of the telescope, so that by unscrewing and screwing opposite screws the ring may be drawn from one side to the other for the purpose of centering the end *G* of the eyepiece. (See p. 601.) The eyepiece shown is an erecting eyepiece and has four lenses, one at *F'* one at *G*, and two between *F'* and *G*. The eyepiece may be moved in or out for focusing by turning the piece *F'M* so that the projecting head of a screw works in the spiral slot shown at *N*. Some eyepieces are focused by a rack and pinion similar to that used for the object-glass.

The object-glass is set in the end of a tube shown in a separate view at $A'K$. The end K moves through a ring at CC similar to the ring shown at $E'E'$, and it may be centered by adjusting this ring in the manner explained above for the eyepiece ring. The object-glass may be moved in and out for focusing by turning a screw at B. At the inner end of this screw is a pinion (shown at B') which works in a rack shown at H, and thus moves the whole piece that carries the object-glass.

The cross-hair ring at DD is shown in a separate view at $D'D'$. It may be moved up or down and from side to side by turning the capstan screws which pass through smooth holes (unthreaded) in the shell of the telescope. (See p. 587.) The cross-hairs are spider-webs (or very fine platinum wire) almost invisible to the eye, and therefore not visible in the photograph. The whitish lines on the ring at right angles to each other are caused by the shellac which fastens the cross-hairs. Underneath the shellac are very fine scratches to aid in replacing broken hairs. (See p. 616.)

Note. It is very important for purposes of adjustment to understand clearly how the capstan screws control the movement of the cross-hair ring, or, as it is often called, the *reticle*. The cross-hairs must be fastened to this ring at right angles to each other before the ring is placed in the telescope, as they cannot be changed in this respect afterward. Notice, however, that the holes in the telescope through which the screws pass are not threaded; on the contrary, they are a little larger than the screws, so that when the latter are loose the whole ring may be turned slightly by moving the four capstan heads simultaneously around the outside of the telescope until one cross-hair is vertical and the other horizontal. When the capstan screws are tight, each screw presses a curved washer (shown in the photograph) against the outside surface of the telescope. When one screw is loosened and the opposite screw tightened, the whole ring is drawn toward the tightened screw (since the holes in the shell of the telescope are smooth) until the loose screw and its washer are brought into contact again with the outside of the telescope. Notice that before tightening one screw the opposite screw should be loosened, otherwise the ring cannot move and the screw-thread may be stripped. By loosening the lower screw and tightening the upper screw, the whole ring may be drawn upward, or by reversing the process it may be drawn downward. Likewise by working the side screws in a similar manner, it may be drawn to one side or the other. All this may be done without turning the ring, *i.e.*, one hair may be kept vertical, the other horizontal.

(b) THE THEORY OF LENSES AS APPLIED TO A TELESCOPE may be studied more in detail by means of Fig. 569 (*b*). Let the upper figure represent a telescope with a non-erecting eyepiece, and the lower figure one with an erecting eyepiece. The former will be considered first. Let GG represent the object-glass and AC any object sighted at. Usually the distance from the object-glass to the object is many times the length of the telescope, and hence the latter is necessarily shown to a greatly *exaggerated* scale.


F
E
D
C
B
A
E
D
C
F′
N M
G
K
A′
H
E′
D′
B′
E′
D′

1. The cone of rays from A becomes another cone of rays after passing through the lens, converging at a (Proposition II, p. 547). Likewise rays from C converge at c, and rays from all points of the object converge at corresponding conjugate foci between a and c. Thus a very small *inverted* image of the object is formed at ac (Art. 568 (b)).

2. The distances d and f' are approximately distances to conjugate foci, both being greater than the focal length of the objective. As d is increased f' must decrease and *vice versa*, *i.e.*, the farther away the object the nearer must be the inverted image to the object-glass. (From Equation 1, p. 547.) Since, however, it is necessary that the image should lie in the plane of the cross-hairs WW (in order to eliminate parallax see p 555) the distance f' is changed for objects at different distances by moving the object-glass *in* (nearer to WW) for distant objects, and *out* (away from WW) for near objects. This explains the rule for focusing on page 86. The focus changes rapidly for objects from 10 to 30 ft. from the telescope, but very slowly after a distance of 100 ft. is reached, the focus for 100 ft. being nearly the same as for greater distances.

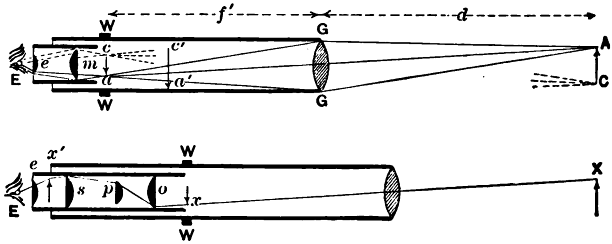


FIG. 569 (b).

The inverted image ac is between the eyepiece and its principal focus, hence, from Proposition III, p. 548, the image will appear to be larger than it is, as if the rays of light came from virtual foci behind ac in some such position as $a'c'$.

In the *erecting eyepiece* extra lenses are inserted which reinvert or erect the image at the cross-hairs before it is magnified. Thus rays from X converge at x in the plane of the cross-hairs, the lenses of the eyepiece form another image reinverted at x', and finally this image as seen by the eye is magnified by the lens at e.

emark. The chief objection to a *non-erecting* eyepiece is the incon- ence caused to the observer from seeing objects inverted. Thus, for nple, a flagman appears to stand on his head, to move to the right n he really moves to the left, and *vice versa*. In the erecting eyepiece, ever, the use of two additional lenses causes a loss of light which is a more serious objection than the slight inconvenience resulting from rsion. Moreover, for a given length of telescope greater magnifying er can be secured without sacrificing illumination by using a non- ting eyepiece. (Why?) There is but little reason for the use of the ting eyepiece, although it is more common than the simpler form; it ild never be used on instruments intended for work of great precision. *ote.* Two special forms of telescope sometimes used for stadia work be mentioned. The Porro telescope, named after its inventor, has an ngement of lenses which makes it possible to read stadia distances ctly without adding the constant $c+f$. In another form of telescope at glass prism at the object-glass makes it possible to measure stadia ances without stadia wires. Neither form is in general use.

c) LINE OF COLLIMATION AND LINE OF SIGHT. The line of imation of a telescope is usually defined as the line from the ical center of the objective to the intersection of the cross- rs. Some writers maintain that this definition is correct y when the cross-hairs are in perfect adjustment. Since the gineer is accustomed to the less ambiguous term "*line of ht*" (a line determined by the intersection of the cross- rs whether they are in adjustment or not), the use of the m "line of collimation" will be avoided in this book.

(*d*) DEFECTS OF TELESCOPES. Spherical and chromatic errations, defined in Art. 568 (*c*), p. 549) are inherent defects ich the manufacturer should aim to correct by a proper nbination of lenses. A third defect is due to the fact that image of a flat object formed by a lens does not lie in a plane, t is concave toward the lens. This *aberration of sphericity,* it is termed, is entirely different from spherical aberration. the case of the object-glass it is inappreciable, but in the epiece it is more serious. It is not a source of error in meas- ng angles and in leveling, since only one point is observed a time, but in stadia work it may become objectionable. The o plano-convex lenses used in the eyepiece to correct chromatic d spherical aberration correct also aberration of sphericity.

(*e*) QUALITIES OF TELESCOPES that depend upon design and nstruction are as follows: 1. Definition; 2. Illumination; Size of field; 4. Magnification.

1. *Definition.* If definition is poor the image will not be ar and distinct. Lack of definition is due to inaccuracy in nding and polishing the lenses or to inaccuracy in centering, ., failure to place the component lenses of either the object ss or the eyepiece so that their axes coincide.

2. *Illumination.* If illumination is poor the image will appear faint, though it may be sharp and definite. Lack of illumination simply means lack of light. The amount of light which reaches the eye through the telescope depends, first of all, upon the size of the *aperture* of the object-glass, which, on account of the diaphragm often placed in the tube, is somewhat smaller than the object-glass itself. The amount of light collected by an objective of a given diameter may be compared with that collected by an objective of different diameter by picturing two squares whose sides are equal respectively to the two diameters, *i.e.*, the amount of light is proportional to the square of the diameter. Of the light which strikes the lens, however, less than 85% enters the telescope, the loss being due to reflection and imperfect transparency. The light which passes through the telescope is distributed over a larger or smaller area by the eyepiece, according to the magnifying power; the greater the magnification the more the illumination is diminished, the brightness of the image varying inversely as the square of the magnifying power. Finally, for the best possible effect, the beam of light which emerges from the eyepiece should be of exactly the same diameter as the pupil of the eye.

3. *Size of field.* The field of view is the whole circular area seen by an observer when looking through the telescope, and the angle at the optical center of the object-glass subtended by the diameter of this circle measures the size of this field. The size of field, however, is not dependent upon the size of the object-glass. It increases as the distance between the object-glass and the eyepiece decreases, it increases as the size of the eyepiece increases, it increases as the magnification decreases. A wide field of view is desirable as it enables the observer to work more rapidly. The use of two plano-convex lenses in the eyepiece, in place of a single lens increases the field of view.

4. *Magnification* depends upon the ratio of the focal length of the object-glass to the focal length of the eyepiece. For example, if the focal length of the objective is 9 inches and that of the eyepiece 0.3 inch, then the magnifying power is 30. The magnifying power should be proportional to the aperture, *i.e.*, to the amount of light which enters the telescope. If the magnifying power is too high for the aperture, ordinary objects will appear too faint, especially under unfavorable atmospheric conditions; and if the magnifying power is too low the objects

will appear too small for accurate sighting. The magnifying power should be such that the least movement of the level-bubble or change in the vernier causes an easily perceptible movement of the cross-hairs over the object in the field of view. Except perhaps in stadia work, a higher power than this is a disadvantage since there is a needless loss in the brightness of the image, while a lower power does not develop the full capacity of the instrument. The loss of light in high-power instruments is often mistaken for cloudiness due to poor lenses.

For rapid working the exact focusing required for a high-power telescope is a drawback, a change in focus being required for a small change in distance. For example, in a low-power telescope the focus for distances between 300 and 400 ft. is practically the same, but in high-power telescopes, the change of a few feet requires a change in focus, and if the telescope is not properly focused the image is apt to be less distinct than in low-power telescopes. Low power is better also for focusing upon objects very near the instrument.

Non-erecting eyepieces are not more powerful than the erecting eyepieces, but, being shorter, they allow for a given length of telescope a greater focal length of object-glass, and thus increase the power. They, however, transmit much more light to the eye and have a much larger field.

For transits the average magnifying power is about 24 diameters, while for levels it is from 30 to 36, running up to 50 in some instruments.

Remark. An erecting eyepiece is now made which can be manipulated so as to change the power of the telescope at will. By this device a high power can be used in favorable weather, and when the weather is unfavorable this high power can be converted to a low one with a consequent increase in illumination and field.

(*f*) *Parallax.* If the image formed by the object-glass is not in the same plane with the cross-hairs, any movement of the eye is likely to cause an apparent movement of the image with respect to the cross-hairs. This is called *parallax.* The effect is similar to that produced in looking through a window, where any movement of the eye causes an apparent movement of objects outside. Parallax may render accurate work impossible. To remedy it the image and the cross-hairs must be brought into the same plane. Two steps are necessary.

(1) Point the telescope toward the sky and move the eyepiece in or out until the cross-hairs are as well defined as possible, i.e., in perfect focus. If only one person uses the instrument this focusing may be done once for all (unless the slide has to be moved when the instrument is put in its box), since the proper focus depends simply upon the eye of the observer.

(2) Direct the telescope to the object and focus the object-glass as usual, keeping the eye on the cross-hairs until the image appears in sharp focus. Test by moving the eye from side to side, and if necessary move the object-glass slightly until parallax disappears.

The more accurate the work the more care should be used to eliminate parallax, while the higher the power of the telescope the more difficult it is to do this.

(*g*) TESTS FOR TELESCOPES. A few of the most important tests for telescopes are given below.*

Flatness of field. Draw a heavy-lined square, 6 or 8 inches on a side, on white paper fastened to a board. Hold the board at such a distance that the square nearly fills the field of the telescope. Focus the telescope on it, then the sides of the square should appear perfectly straight. Any curvature except at the extreme limits of the field is especially objectionable in stadia work.

Definition. Focus on small clear print 40 or 50 ft. away. If the definition of the telescope is good the print will be clearly defined and legible.

Size of field. Set two transit poles 200 or 300 ft. from the instrument at such a distance apart that one is in one edge of the field and the other in the opposite edge. Multiply this distance by 57.3 and divide by the distance to the poles 200 or 300 ft., as the case may be. The result is the angular width of field in degrees.

Size of aperture. Focus the telescope on any distant object; then withdraw the eye to a distance of 8 or 10 inches or until the small disc of light which appears in the center of the eyepiece is distinctly seen. Hold a pencil-point at the extreme edge of the object-glass. If it shows itself as a dark spot in the edge of the disc of light, the aperture is equal to the diameter of the glass; if not, move it toward the center until the dark spot appears, measure the distance from the edge of the glass to the pencil-point, and subtract twice this distance from the diameter of the glass. The result is the diameter of the aperture. It is better to use a small piece of moistened paper in place of the pencil-point, sticking it on the glass and moving it into place with the finger-tip.

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* *For more complete directions for testing telescopes consult Professor Baker's Engineers' Surveying Instruments*, p. 80.

Magnifying power. Divide the diameter of the clear aperture by the diameter of its image (the disc of light) formed by the eyepiece. Thus if the image is $\frac{1}{10}$ inch in diameter and the aperture is 1.5 inch, the magnifying power is 15.

Another method: Focus on a coarsely graduated rod held from 125 to 150 ft. from the instrument. Look through the telescope with one eye and along the outside of the telescope with the other eye. One space viewed through the telescope will appear to cover a certain number of spaces seen with the naked eye. This number is approximately the magnifying power.

(*h*) TELESCOPES, SUMMARY.

1. The objective forms an inverted image at the cross-hairs, the eyepiece magnifies this image and the cross-hairs.

2. The objective must be brought nearer to the cross-hairs as an object sighted at is farther away and *vice versa.*

3. The object-glass is an achromatic lens composed of a double-convex crown-glass and a concavo-convex flint glass.

4. The erecting eyepiece is composed of four lenses; the non-erecting of two. The latter therefore permits more light to reach the eye. It is also shorter and therefore affords space for the use of an objective of longer focus in a telescope of a given length, thus increasing the power.

5. Magnifying power is equal to the focal length of the objective divided by the focal length of the eyepiece.

6. The advantage of high power lies in the apparent increase in the size of the object sighted at. The disadvantages are: loss in illumination, decrease in the size of the field, increased difficulty in focusing. The brightness of an image varies inversely as the square of the magnifying power.

7. The image formed by the objective should lie in the plane of the cross-hairs to avoid parallax.

8. The size of the aperture is not always equal to the diameter of the objective. The amount of light collected by an ob-

jective is proportional to the square of the diameter of the clear aperture.

9. Flatness of field is most important in stadia work.

10. Chromatic aberration, spherical aberration, and aberration of sphericity are defects which are inherent in a single lens, but which can be corrected by compound lenses.

CHAPTER XLV

SURVEYING INSTRUMENTS

As no person is likely to study a surveying instrument unless he has one to use, no attempt is made in this chapter to explain parts of an instrument which are readily understood from inspection. The chief aim is to set forth important requirements which good instruments should fulfil, and to give methods of testing and comparing instruments. Incidentally important features of different instruments are pointed out, and wherever necessary the workings of concealed parts are explained.

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570. Chains and Tapes. (*a*) CHAINS. Each link of a surveyor's chain is made of iron or steel wire, and includes a long piece and a separate ring at each end. There are two kinds of chains: *Gunter's* chains and the *engineer's* chain. The former is 66 ft. long, while the latter is 100 ft. Each has 100 links; hence the length of a link in the Gunter's chain is 0.66 ft., while in the engineer's it is 1.0 ft. Some engineer's chains are only 50 ft. long, but the length of each link is still 1.0 ft. Gunter's chain was made 66 ft. long so that ten square chains should equal one acre. This gives rise to the special units of measurement given at the bottom of page 3. While the chain is still used it is being rapidly replaced by the steel tape. (See *Remark*, p. 33.)

(*b*) TAPES are of three kinds: (1) *Cloth* tapes, (2) *metallic* tapes (linen, woven with fine brass wire), and (3) *steel* tapes. They vary in length from a 3-ft. pocket-tape to a 1000-ft. steel tape. Usual lengths are 50 and 100 ft. Cloth tapes are useless except for very rough work. Metallic tapes are somewhat better, but they are affected by moisture and under a strong pull they will sometimes stretch as much as 0.3 ft. in 100 ft. They stretch permanently with continued use and are suitable only for rough work. Steel tapes vary in quality and accuracy of graduation, but even the poorest steel tape is far superior to either a cloth or a metallic tape.

(*c*) STEEL TAPES. A steel tape is a thin ribbon of steel in one piece, from $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ in. in width, from $\frac{1}{64}$ to $\frac{3}{64}$ in. in thickness.

Band (*or Chain*) *Steel Tape.* Comparatively narrow and thick, divided into feet (sometimes links) with the foot at each end subdivided.

Ribbon Tape. Wider and thinner than the band tape, divided into feet, each foot subdivided; differs from the band tape in being graduated throughout. The ribbon steel tape is one of the most accurate devices known for linear measurements. It is used for city work, for base-line measurements, and for other work where great accuracy is required. Errors due to different sources, such as temperature, pull, sag, etc., can be eliminated or corrected as explained in Chapter V.

Pocket steel tapes in lengths from 3 ft. up, are very useful, and it is a good plan to carry one in the pocket not only in the field but in the office also.

Special tapes may be had fitted with a thermometer and a spring-balance or a compensating handle.

Best size for ordinary work. Band tape $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{3}{8}$ in. wide, a little more than $\frac{1}{64}$ in. thick. *Ribbon* tape $\frac{3}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide. Wide thin tapes are easily broken.

Graduation of tapes. Tapes may be graduated to suit the purchaser. Standard graduations are as follows:

(1) Every foot marked, every fifth foot numbered 5–to–100, the foot at the zero end subdivided to tenths of a foot.

(2) Same as (1) except there are two series of numbers, one beginning at either end and numbered throughout in opposite directions, each end foot subdivided.

(3) Same as (1) except numbered symmetrically with respect to middle of tape thus: 0–10–20–30–40–50–40–30–20–10–0, each end foot subdivided.

(4) Graduated from end to end, each foot subdivided, and each foot numbered. This is the best form of graduation. (See *Remark*, p. 34.)

Graduation marks. There are four methods in common use for marking graduations: (1) By small brass rivets, one every foot, with some device for indicating 10-ft. points, as, for example, one rivet at 10 ft., two at 20 ft., three at 30 ft., etc. (2) By short brass sleeves at graduation points, with numbers stamped in the brass. (3) By lumps of solder at graduation points, with numbers stamped in the solder. (4) By etching the division lines on the tape with acid. Rivet holes in (1) and etching in (4) weaken the tape. Numbers etched are apt to become indistinct. Methods (2) and (3) are preferable for rough usage.

Reels and handles. Tapes may be wound up in leather or metal boxes or on some form of open reel. It is better for the tape to use neither, but to do it up in the form of a figure 8 (see p. 31). This allows the tape to dry quickly, avoids sharp bends, and permits the use of non-detachable handles. Most detachable handles come off too easily and are apt to be lost. Fasten such handles on with string or wire. The raw-hide loop handle is not apt to come off, but is more likely to catch in the bushes.

Note. After a steel tape has been done up in a figure 8 it may be twisted into a still more convenient form as follows: Tie the ends of the tape, but leave untied the middle of the 8 where the sides cross, thus allowing the tape to hang in one loop. Grasp opposite sides of the loop where they cross in the 8 and pull them apart, thus stretching the 8 crosswise. If properly done the tape will turn into two circular loops which may be brought together as one circle about the size of one loop of the 8. To undo the tape reverse the process, allowing the tape to spring back into a figure 8. Several trials may be necessary before the "trick" is learned, but the form is such a convenient one for carrying tapes that every chainman should learn to use it.

(*d*) STANDARDIZING TAPES. A steel tape can be sent to the National Bureau of Standards at Washington, where it will be tested for a small fee. The certificate of comparison furnished will state, among other data, the temperature at which comparison was made, the tension at which the tape was compared, and the length corrected for a standard temperature of 62° F. Having thus obtained the data concerning one tape this tape may be kept unused as a standard by which to test other tapes, or a permanent standard may be established as explained below.

Permanent standard. Any device used for testing the graduation of a steel tape should fulfil the following conditions:

(1) The exact distance between permanent marks should be known at the time the tape is tested.

(2) The tape should be supported throughout its length; if supported at intervals the tops of the supports should be level.

(3) Marks on the standard should be very fine, but clear and permanent.

(4) Some provision should be made for keeping the tape steady at a known pull; also some provision for measuring the temperature of the tape.

(5) There should be some device for observing and measuring the discrepancies in length between the standard and the tape tested.

For ordinary surveying a standard for a 100-ft. tape may be established as follows: On a level floor nail pieces of zinc about 2 inches square and 25 ft. apart centers (or closer if desired) for 100 ft. Near each end place a small turn-buckle, one end fastened to the floor, the other end attached in one case to the tape and in the other case to a spring-balance which connects the tape and turn-buckle. Select a day when the temperature *near the floor* is 62° (or whatever may be the standard for the tape), stretch the tape by means of the turn-buckle until the spring-balance reaches 12 lbs. (or whatever may be the standard pull), and make a fine deep scratch on each piece of zinc at the zero-point, the 100-ft. point, and at intermediate points. The scratches may be made with a straight-edge and fine-pointed awl, the work being done under a magnifying glass. When a floor space 100 ft. long cannot be had, the standard may be laid off on a sidewalk, water-table of a building, curbing or other convenient place if proper provisions can be made for marks. Sometimes stone posts with copper plugs or plates in their tops and set so that they cannot be disturbed are used as standards.*

In extensive work where great accuracy is required a more elaborate standard is sometimes necessary. That used for the Boston Water-works consisted of a steel strip a little over 100 ft. long, laid in a wooden trough with a cover to protect it. Graduations were on silver plugs inserted in the strip. A tape laid on the strip for testing would expand or contract for changes of temperature the same amount as the strip itself.†

Testing the tape. Stretch the tape with the turn-buckles and the spring-balance. Bring the zero of the tape exactly opposite the zero of the standard as observed through a magnifying glass, keeping the pull correct. Read the amount the tape is long or short, using a magnifying glass and a steel or boxwood scale divided to 50ths or 100ths of an inch. Note the temperature of the tape. The difference between the length of the tape and the standard should be corrected for the differ-

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* See *Engineering News*, May 6, 1897, p. 284, for a description of an elaborate apparatus for standardising tapes at Salt Lake City.

† See a paper on "The 100-foot Standard of Length of the Boston Waterworks at Chestnut Hill," by Charles W. Sherman.

between the observed temperature and the standard tem-
,ure; the result is the error of the tape in inches and should
:duced to a decimal of a foot. Intermediate points should
be tested, since some of them may be incorrect even though
: is no error in the total length of the tape. A tag attached
ıe handle should give the result of the test in some such
ıer as this: "Tested by John Smith, Fred Jones, and
h Brown, Sept. 14, 1907, Total length of tape 0.005 ft.
.. Intermediate marks at 25-ft. points correct."

1. The Transit. Although there are upward of four
lred parts in an ordinary transit, it may be divided for
oses of explanation into the three parts shown in the
ograph on page 565 viz. (1) the *upper plate,* (2) the *lower*
(or middle part), and (3) the *leveling-head.* The *sup-*
ng axis of the telescope rests at either end upon a *standard,*
these standards are rigidly attached to the upper plate, so
when the telescope is turned sidewise or horizontally the upper
must turn with it. The whole may therefore be considered
ne part. The *inner spindle A* fits into a socket in the
spindle B, and the latter fits into the socket *C* in the level-
.ead. The object of these two spindles is to allow either
ıpper or the lower plate to be revolved without turning the
:. When the transit is set up properly the leveling-head
ıtionary and the two plates are level. If the upper plate
ımped to the lower plate, both may be revolved together
he spindle *B.* If now the lower plate is fastened to the
ing-head, neither plate can revolve nor can the telescope
ırned sidewise. If, however, the upper plate is unclamped
the lower, it can be turned (telescope and all) on the
lle *A,* although the lower plate will remain stationary since
still fastened to the leveling-head. The upper plate is
:times called the *vernier plate* because it has attached to
vernier, the zero of which may be called an indicator. The
e upper part including the telescope is sometimes called
ılidade. The lower plate or *limb* has on its outer edge the
uated circle. There are three steps in measuring a hori-
ıl angle: (1) Set the indicator of the vernier opposite the
on the limb and clamp the upper and lower plates together.
Turn the telescope toward the backsight, both plates revolv-
ın the spindle *B,* and when the line of sight is on the back-
, clamp the lower plate to the leveling-plate. Now neither

plate can turn and the indicator is still opposite the zero. (3) Unclamp the upper plate, turn the telescope toward the foresight, the upper plate revolving on the spindle *A*, but the lower plate remaining stationary; the value of the arc which the indicator passes over as the telescope is turned from the backsight to the foresight can be read by observing the point on the limb at which the indicator stops when the line of sight is on the foresight. (See p. 67.) For the methods of reading angles see Chapter VIII, and for directions for setting up and manipulating the transit see Chapter IX.

(*a*) *Note.* Although the transits manufactured by different instrument-makers vary somewhat in design from that shown in the photograph practically all transits work on the general principle of a double spindle, in order to give the lower plate an independent motion. An exception may be noted in the case of the "cyclotomic transit," made by a San Francisco firm, in which the lower plate is *stationary*. Around the periphery of this plate, however, is a "floating" graduated ring which is not fixed but possesses that independent rotation which the lower plate has in the case of the double spindle. Instead of turning the whole plate around its vertical axis, a narrow metal band is turned around the stationary plate, thus accomplishing the same purpose. See *Engineering News*, March 19, 1896.

(*b*) SET-SCREWS AND TANGENT-SCREWS. The upper plate is clamped to the lower plate by means of the set-screw *D*. This screw is not attached to the lower plate, although it appears to be in the photograph, but it works through an arm *E* which ends in a collar around the outside of the spindle *B*. When the screw *D* is set this collar is clamped to *B*, but when the screw is loose the arm is free to turn about *B*. When the upper and lower plates are put together the arm *E* fits between the *tangent-screw* and the cartridge-spring at the point *G*. Hence when the screw *D* is loose the upper plate can revolve, taking *D* with it, but when *D* is set the upper plate is virtually clamped to the lower. By turning the tangent-screw *F*, however, the upper plate can be made to revolve slowly, *provided D remains fixed;* if *D* is loose, turning *G* will have no effect. For example, the zero of the vernier may be set *approximately* opposite the zero of the limb, the screw *D* may then be tightened, and the upper plate turned slowly by the screw *F* until the vernier zero is *exactly* opposite the other zero. In like manner when a line of sight is *approximately* on a foresight it may be brought *exactly* on, without disturbing the lower plate, by tightening *D* and turning *F*.

The lower plate is clamped to the leveling-head by means *of the set*-screw *H*. When this is tightened it pushes in a little

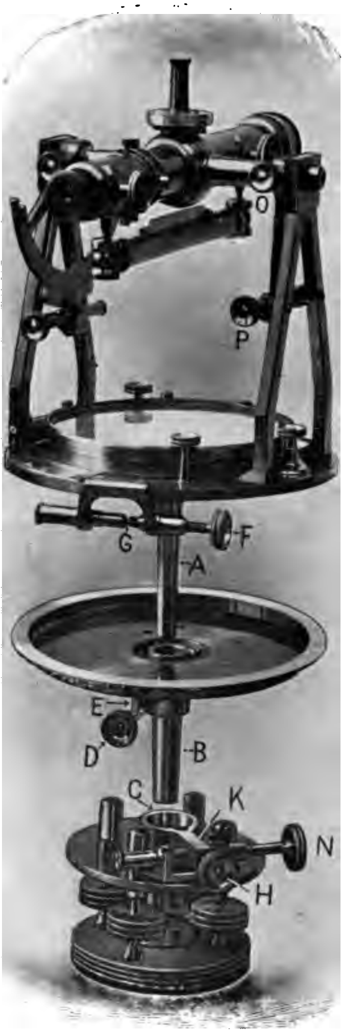

FIG. 571.

key (the little black piece at the inside end of the arm *K*) which binds the spindle *B*, so that the lower plate cannot turn. The collar *C*, however, is not fastened to the leveling-head, but simply rests upon it so that by turning the *lower tangent-screw N* the arm *K* can be moved slowly, the lower plate turning with it, *provided the screw H* is tight; if *H* is loose, turning *N* will move the arm *K* and the collar *C*, but not the spindle *B* (or the lower plate). The screw *H* is used mostly in backsighting, when the upper and lower plates are clamped together at zero; when the line of sight is approximately on the backsight the screw *H* may be set, and the lower plate turned slowly by the screw *N* (taking the upper plate with it) until the line of sight is exactly on the backsight, with both plates still clamped together at zero.

Notice that neither of the tangent-screws *N* nor *H* is of any use until the corresponding set-screw is tightened. For the proper use of these screws in measuring angles see page 91.

Note. In many transits the collar *C* is formed by a bent piece, the two ends of which are prolonged to form the arm *K*. These two ends are held together by a clamp-screw which replaces the set-screw *H*. When the clamp is loosened the two ends spring apart, thus releasing the grip of the collar on the spindle *B*.

To control the movement of the telescope in a *vertical* plane the set-screw *O* works upon the supporting axis of the telescope. When this screw is tight the telescope cannot be moved up or down except by means of the tangent-screw *P*. The set-screw and corresponding tangent-screw shown at the other end of the supporting axis are for the purpose of adjusting the *vertical arc* and are omitted on many transits. (See *Caution*, p. 98.)

Remark. If a transit is in perfect adjustment and properly set up it is impossible to measure with it any except vertical and horizontal angles, for when the telescope is turned up or down it moves in a vertical plane, and when it is turned sidewise it revolves on a *vertical* spindle *A*, the indicator passing over a *horizontal* graduated arc (lower plate).

(*c*) SPECIAL ATTACHMENTS for special uses of the transit are as follows:

1. *Solar attachment* for observations on the sun for meridian, longitude, etc.
2. *Gradienter* for running grades, etc. (See p. 245.)
3. *An auxiliary telescope* attached to the end of the supporting axis of the regular telescope for use in mining.
4. *Diagonal* or *prismatic eyepiece* for sighting at very high nts.

5. *A reflector* for illuminating the cross-hairs when working in the dark.

6. *A compass-needle and -box* generally, but not always furnished on transits.

7. *Stadia wires* should be placed in every transit intended for general work. They are often omitted, however, unless specially ordered.

(*d*) Requirements for transits. The most important requirements to be met in an ordinary transit are as follows:

1. The axis of the spindle *B* should be exactly perpendicular to the plane of the graduated circle.

2. The axes of the two spindles *A* and *B* should coincide, the conical surfaces should be parallel and in close contact. The instrument should turn on either spindle without play and without friction.

3. The graduations on the limb should be accurate, the lines should be fine, and for a transit reading to 30″ or less the graduations should be on solid silver. The center of the graduated circle on the limb should be in the axis of rotation. (For different graduations of the limb see Chapter VIII, pp. 67–75.)

4. As it is impossible to fulfil perfectly all of the above requirements, there should be two verniers 180° apart for the purpose of eliminating errors of eccentricity in accurate work. (See pp. 101, 195.)

5. Theoretically, in order to avoid parallax the vernier plate should be in the plane of the graduated arc, and the space between the two should be imperceptible. As the latter condition is impracticable, some makers place the inner plate slightly below the plane of the outer, so that the diagonal line of sight, when it reaches the inner piece, will strike beyond the space between the two plates and give a continuity of lines. If this is done some provision should be made for bringing the eye into the vertical plane passing through the agreeing division of the vernier and the limb. (For different forms of verniers see pp. 78–82.)

6. The relation between the magnifying power of the telescope and the least count of the vernier should be such that the least perceptible movement of the vernier will cause a perceptible movement of the cross-hairs on a distant object and *vice versa.* (See p. 555.) Still greater power is desirable for stadia work. A similar relation should exist between the mag-

nifying power of the telescope and the sensitiveness of the level under the telescope and of the plate-levels. (See p. 545.) For additional requirements for telescopes see pp. 553 to 558.

8. Clamps and set-screws should hold without forcing, and there should be no "back lash" or lost motion in the tangent-screws.

9. The tripod should be as light as is consistent with rigidity, and for convenience in setting up there should be a "shifting-head."

10. There are five additional requirements which are met by adjustments, viz., (1) The plane of the plate-levels should be perpendicular to the vertical axis of the spindles. (2) The line of collimation of the telescope should be perpendicular to the supporting axis. (3) The supporting axis should be parallel to the plane of the plate-levels. (4) The axis of the bubble under the telescope should be parallel to the line of collimation. (5) The vertical arc should read zero when the line of collimation is horizontal. For these adjustments see pp. 584 to 591.

(*e*) TESTS FOR THE TRANSIT. *Graduation.* Graduating engines have been perfected to such an extent that no errors in graduation are likely to occur which can be detected by any simple test that the surveyor can make. Errors frequently run in periods, so that one or two repetitions, should they fall within these periods, give the same though false results. A second class of errors of graduation, called *accidental* errors, follow no regular law. The surveyor for the most part must depend upon the instrument-maker to eliminate as far as possible both periodic and accidental errors of graduation.

The vital point of any instrument is the graduation. Defects in other parts may prove an annoyance or inconvenience, and yet the instrument work correctly. With defects of graduation, accuracy, if not impossible, is a mere matter of accident. Defects in ordinary parts of the instrument become evident to the engineer. In the graduations they are unknown, and frequently the only evidence of their existence is the unsatisfactory condition of the finished work, leaving the engineer in doubt whether the unsatisfactory results condemning his work arise from his own carelessness or the imperfections of his instrument. It is not necessary that errors should be found in all parts; the mere fact that an error may exist anywhere is sufficient to throw doubt upon the work.—*Catalog of Young and Sons.*

Eccentricity. The two opposite verniers should read exactly alike in any position. Test by reading both verniers in several positions until the circle has been turned through at least 90°. If readings differ by a constant amount the verniers are not set *exactly* 180° apart. If they differ by a variable amount and the graduation on the limb is assumed to be correct, then the center of the upper plate (vernier plate) is not in the center of the graduated circle, i.e., the vertical axes of the inner and outer spindles do not coincide. The total difference in readings between two opposite verniers is generally due to a combination of the two causes. A similar test can be applied to the vertical circle if it has two opposite verniers.

Note. For tests of the levels see page 545, and for the telescope see page 556.

572. The Level in its simplest form is used merely to establish a horizontal line of sight at any point on the earth's surface. All forms except *hand-levels* are mounted on tripods similar to those used for transits.

There are two distinct types of tripod levels, the *wye*-level and the *dumpy* level. Each of these has but one vertical spindle, and is much less complex than the transit. Each has a leveling-head similar to that used on the transit, and the upper part carries a telescope with a level-bubble tube attached. The most essential qualities in the telescope are definition and magnifying power. (See p. 553.) The length of the telescope is not limited as it is in the transit, and varies from 12 to 22 inches in ordinary levels. Hence a higher magnifying power may be obtained without sacrificing illumination or field of view (see p. 554); it should not be less than 30 diameters. Unless the stadia is used flatness of field is not so essential. An inverting eyepiece is better than an erecting eyepiece. The bubble-tube can be made longer than that on the transit telescope, and thus a greater radius of curvature secured, increasing the sensitiveness of the bubble to correspond to the increase in magnifying power. Sensitiveness should not be less than 0.01 ft. = 30″, and may be increased to less than 10″ in the larger instruments. It is, of course, especially important that the level-bubble should have the other good qualities mentioned on page 544. Another requirement in a good level is stability, and this depends mainly upon the leveling-head. Four leveling-screws are furnished on ordinary levels, although three give greater stability and delicacy. The spindle should be long and well fitted to the socket, and the whole upper part of the instrument should be well balanced when the telescope is focused for the average length of sight.

(*a*) THE WYE-LEVEL, so called because the telescope rests in two Y-shaped supports, has two distinguishing characteristics: (1) The telescope may be revolved about its own axis as it rests in the wyes, and (2) it may be taken out of the wyes and replaced, turned end for end. The object of this construction is to facilitate adjustment (see p. 592), but unless the diameters of the rings or collars are exactly the same, perfect adjustment is impossible by the indirect method. Even if the rings are alike to start with they are subject to wear that is seldom the same on the two rings. Hence if the level attached to the telescope is adjusted in the usual manner by reversing it end for end in the wyes, it may be adjusted parallel to the bottom of the collars and not parallel to the line of sight. Most wye-levels are subject to this uncertainty of adjustment unless the "peg method" is used. (See p. 597.) To overcome this objection some makers furnish a "reversion" bubble-tube, the glass of which is ground barrel-shape and graduated on the bottom as well as on the top. The arithmetical mean of two readings, one with the telescope normal, the other with it revolved 180° about its own axis until the bubble-tube is on top, is correct, though the rings may be of unequal diameters. In any form of wye-level there should be some device for stopping the telescope, as it is revolved about its own axis, when the vertical hair becomes truly vertical.

(*b*) THE DUMPY LEVEL is one in which the telescope is attached to the bar in such a way that it cannot be revolved about its own axis or taken out of its supports and turned end for end. Though less convenient to adjust than the wye-level it holds its adjustment longer. As the line of sight is adjusted by the "peg method," the uncertainty of adjustment mentioned in connection with the wye-level is avoided. The dumpy level is more simple and compact than the wye-level, and if equally well made it will do as accurate work. Some of the most perfect levels made and used in work of great precision are of this type.*

(*c*) SPECIAL FORMS OF LEVELS. *Levels of precision* are simply wye-levels or dumpy levels made with the greatest care, and having some modifications and attachments designed to increase the accuracy of the work. (See page 275.) *Hand-levels*, such as *Locke's Hand-level*, are for rough work and are used mostly for locating contours in topographic surveying. (See p. 233.) To this class also belongs the *Clinometer* or *Abney Hand-level*, which is a modification of the Locke level, having a supplementary telescope and graduated arc for reading vertical angles. For work of medium accuracy there are varieties of levels, such as the *Architect's Level*, which are simply cheaper forms of the wye level or the dumpy level.

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* *See Engineering News*, July 2, 1903, for a description of one of the latest *precise leveling* instruments.

Note. By exercising a little ingenuity home-made levels may be devised, which can be used for rough work. For example, a right angle may be constructed of two wooden pieces and pivoted to a staff; the vertical leg is made vertical by a plumb-line attached to the upper corner, and the line of sight directed along the horizontal leg. Another form is the well-known A-level in which the plumb-line is attached to the apex of the A and the line of sight directed along the horizontal bar. This form may be adjusted by placing the two bottom points of the A on two rigid supports, marking the point at which the plumb-line crosses the horizontal bar, reversing the A on the supports, marking a second point on the bar, and taking a final point half-way between. If the A-level is held so that the plumb-line passes through this final point, the horizontal bar will be truly horizontal. There are also forms of water-levels, such as a U-shaped tube with water in it, or even a bucket of water with a wooden float and two upright sticks to serve as sights. A carpenter's square and plumb-bob are frequently used for establishing a horizontal line.

(*e*) Tests for the level. (1) Sensitiveness of the bubble. (See p. 545 for test.) (2) Magnification: The least displacement of the bubble should cause a perceptible movement of the cross-hair, otherwise the magnifying power is too low. (See p. 555.) (3) The optical center should move in the line of collimation as the objective is moved from the shortest to the longest focus. (See *Suggestion* 8, p. 594, for test.) (4) The diameter of the rings on a wye-level should be exactly equal. (See *Remark*, p. 597, for test.) (5) For other tests of telescope see p. 556.).

573. Leveling-rods may be divided into two classes: (1) *target* rods and (2) *self-reading* or *speaking* rods. Although the self-reading rod is usually provided with a target for use in accurate work, the graduation on the rod is such that the levelman can take direct readings through the telescope without the aid of a target. Experiments show that the difference in precision between target readings and direct readings is not as great as is generally supposed, and that it is a waste of time to use a target in a large part of ordinary leveling. (See p. 271.) The two types of leveling-rods most used, the *New York* rod and the *Philadelphia* rod, are illustrated on pages 228 and 230. The former is a target rod and the latter a self-reading rod. Frequently, however, the sights are so short that the New York rod can be used as a self-reading rod, and for this reason the upper half should be graduated on the front face. Many rod-makers fail to do this and it may be necessary for the engineer to do it for himself. There are many patterns of self-reading rods in use. (See Stadia Rods, p. 574.)

(*a*) TARGETS. The *quadrant* target shown on pages 228 and 230 is of the type most used. Another form called the *diamond* target gives better results for long sights. There are several other patterns in use. Targets are provided with a *vernier* as shown on the New York rod, page 230, or with a *scale* as shown on the Philadelphia rod, page 228. The *angle* target, in which the right-hand half is at right angles to the left-hand half, is a special form devised to insure the rod being held perpendicular to the line of sight. (See p. 270.)

(*b*) SPECIAL FORMS OF LEVELING-RODS. A *hinge* rod, in which the upper half is fastened to the lower by a hinge, is sometimes used in place of the ordinary extension rod. Better than either of these for accurate work is the single-piece rod, since the errors that are likely to be caused by any form of joint are avoided. There are various other forms, such as rods on which the target is moved up and down by an endless chain, and flexible rods which are simply canvas strips graduated like a self-reading rod. These strips when rolled up can be carried in the pocket; when tacked to a straight board they answer very well for a self-reading rod.

The *automatic leveling-rod* is a special form of self-reading rod which gives the elevation of points directly without arithmetical work. It consists of an endless steel band passing over rollers at the top and bottom of a wooden rod. The graduation is painted on the band to correspond to that of a self-reading rod, but reads downward instead of upward. In using the rod the band is set for every backsight by moving it until the graduation mark which corresponds to the elevation of the point on which the rod is held comes into the line of sight. For example, if the elevation of the point where a backsight is taken is 94.83, the band is moved until the 4.83-mark comes into the line of sight If now the rod is held on any other point, the line of sight will strike the tape at a graduation mark corresponding to the elevation of that point, provided the tape has not been disturbed between the backsight and foresight. Thus elevations are read directly, and the backsight and foresight columns are entirely *eliminated* from the level notes. This form of rod is very useful in taking topography and in cross-section work. Rods made according to the same general principle are described in *Engineering News*, Sept. 13, 1900, and March 12, 1903.

(*c*) THE PLUMBING-LEVEL consists of a round level vial which may be held against the rod or fastened to it. It is used for determining when the rod is perpendicular, and adds greatly to the accuracy of the work. Some such device should always be used in work of great precision.

574. Stadia Rods are of two kinds; target and self-reading. The former has two targets both of which must be set for every sight taken. It may be slightly more accurate, but it is far less convenient than the self-reading rod, and is seldom used in ordinary work. It is sometimes used for exceptionally long sights.

There is a large variety of self-reading stadia rods in common use. Many engineers prefer to graduate their own rods, using the pattern best suited to their work. All of the rods in Fig. 574 are graduated with the foot as a unit. Rods No. 1 and No. 5 are often graduated with the meter as a unit. In Fig. 574 the space between the top and bottom dotted lines corresponds to 10 ft. on the ground, while each of the small spaces between the dotted lines corresponds to 2 ft. on the ground.

The first two rods are suitable for long sights, the last three for short sights. The difference in accuracy, however, is not as great as at first appears, for distances can be estimated on the first two rods almost as closely as they can be read on the last three. Moreover, the large number of subdivisions on each of the last three rods leads to confusion in counting the marks included between the stadia wires.

Whatever pattern is used there should be sufficient white background at any point on the rod to make a stadia wire covering that point very clear and distinct to an observer looking through the telescope. Rods No. 1 and No. 5 (U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey rods) and rod No. 4 (described by Mr. T. J. McMinn in *Engineering News*, Oct. 22, 1896), are excellent in this respect, while rod No. 2 is defective at those points where the black spaces so nearly cover the width of the rod. Rod No. 2 was used on the Oswego-Mohawk Ship Canal Survey, but the width of the rod was somewhat greater in proportion to the size of the black spaces than that shown in the cut.

(*a*) *Directions for making stadia rods.* The rod should be from 4 to 6 inches wide, about ½ inch thick, and from 10 to 14 ft. long, made of straight-grained white pine free from knots and planed smooth. A thin strip fastened securely to each edge and projecting slightly in front of the face serves to stiffen the rod and also protects the graduation. If the side strips are left off, the corners should be rounded slightly, and a stiffening strip about 1½″ thick by ¾″ screwed to the back. For protection and convenience in transportation, some engineers prefer rods hinged at the middle, so that the upper and lower halves may be folded together, faces inward. A metal shoe may be screwed to the bottom of the rod and thin metal strengthening plates fastened on the back at the top and bottom.

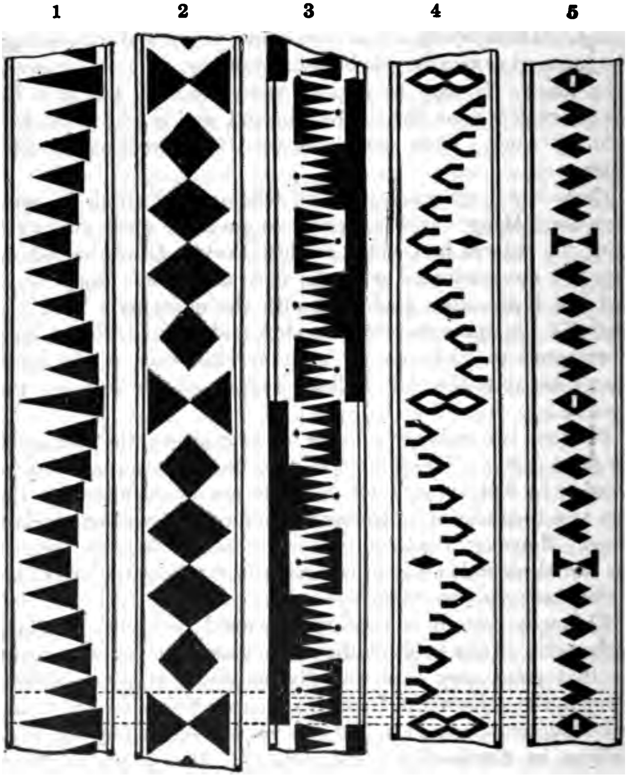

Fig. 574.

At least two good coats of white paint should be given the rod; it is better to give the rod a preliminary coat of shellac, and then several coats of paint, rubbing each coat down after it is dry to a smooth dull finish. If the rod is to be graduated to suit a fixed stadia interval, the unit of length *may be determined* by the method explained on page 304. Ordinarily, *however, the rod* is divided into feet and tenths, or into meters and decimeters, by means of a scale, beginning about 3 inches from the bottom. The pattern should be first penciled, then ruled with a right-line pen filled with paint and finally filled in with a camel's-hair brush. A dull black paint may be used throughout, although some engineers prefer to emphasize certain division-marks, as, for example, the even foot-marks, by painting them red. Sometimes such marks are numbered, but it is doubtful if this is of any advantage. If desired the whole rod may be coated with a durable, elastic varnish rubbed down to a dull finish. The rod should be allowed to dry thoroughly before using.

575. **The Surveyor's Compass** in its simplest form is mounted on a single staff, but in its usual form it is mounted on a tripod. The upper part consists of a horizontal arm having two uprights or sight vanes, with a compass-box between them. There are various devices for attaching this upper part to the tripod, such as a ball-and-socket joint, a leveling-head similar to that used on transits, and in some instruments a combination of the two. The needle should be so sensitive that when it is attracted to one side by a piece of iron held a foot or so away it will settle in its original position several times in succession. Sensitiveness depends upon the sharpness and perfect form of the pivot, the form and smoothness of the cup, the shape and balance of the needle, and the strength of its magnetism. A good needle properly charged does not often lose its magnetism, and hence in the majority of cases a sluggish needle is due to the dulling of the pivot-point, or to the scratching of the cup. As it is difficult to sharpen a pivot, special precautions should be taken to avoid dulling it, such, for example, as lifting the needle off the pivot when not in use. (See p. 294.) The extreme ends of the needle should come close to the graduated circle and should lie in the same plane with it to avoid parallax in reading. The center of the needle and the two ends should lie in the same vertical plane, so that if the pivot is in the center of the graduated circle the readings of the two ends of the needle will agree. The magnetic axis of the needle should coincide with its geometric axis. The plane passing through the slits of the sight vanes, in which the line of sight is contained, should pass through the zero-points of the graduated circle and be at right angles to the plane of this circle. The above are the most important requirements for a good compass; most of them depend wholly upon the process of manufacture, while a few may be met by proper adjustment of the instrument. (See p. 602.)

(*a*) SPECIAL FORMS OF COMPASSES. When the *plain compass* described above has a movable vernier for setting off the magnetic declination it is called a *vernier compass.* The *prismatic compass* used for less accurate work has a triangular glass prism and a mirror by means of which the needle may be read at the same time that a sight is taken; this is an advantage when the instrument is held in the hand instead of being mounted on a Jacob's-staff or a tripod. Compasses are sometimes provided with a graduation for reading angles independently of the needle, but the precision which can be obtained with open sights is hardly sufficient to warrant this. Telescopes sometimes replace the open sights, but if the work is of such a nature as to require a telescope, it is better to use a light transit in place of the compass. The solar compass, formerly used in land surveys for determining the true meridian by an observation on the sun, has now been replaced almost entirely by the solar attachment on the transit which is constructed on the same general principles. (See Appendix I.)

(*b*) TESTS FOR THE COMPASS. (1) Stretch a fine thread through the two sight vanes. The north and south points of the graduated circle and the zero of the declination-arc vernier should be directly underneath this thread. (2) Test the sensitiveness of the needle to see if it will settle several times in succession at the same reading after being attracted to one side. (3) By means of a transit set stakes about 200 ft. from a station at angular intervals of, say, 30° until a circle is completed. Set the compass over the station and sight at each stake in succession, noting the needle readings. If at any point the change in the needle reading is not 30° from that of the preceding reading, and if all sources of attraction outside of the compass have been carefully removed, it is probable that the metal of the compass-box contains some magnetic substance, as, for example, iron mixed with the brass. If a compass has a long declination arc and vernier, the transit may be dispensed with in the above test, the angles being turned off by means of the vernier.

576. The Plane-table. A complete plane-table consists of a drawing-board mounted on a tripod and an *alidade* consisting of a thin flat straight-edge upon which is mounted a telescope and vertical arc.

The *board* varies in size from 15″×15″ for a traverse board up to 24″×30″ for a regulation plane-table. It should be constructed so that it will not warp and its upper surface should ıooth *plane*, two conditions difficult to fulfil. There are devices for fastening the paper to the board, of which ıcks are perhaps the best. (See 393 (3), p. 327.) lrawing-board is connected to the tripod by a mechanism upports the board, yet leaves it free to revolve in a hori- ›lane. If the diameter of this support is small the board · to be unstable, while if the diameter is large the instru- likely to be heavy and cumbersome. The maximum of and strength is probably obtained by the use of radiating hich support the board. For ordinary work, however, ır and more portable instrument with a quick leveling is desirable. An excellent form is that adopted by the Geological Survey and known as *Johnson's* plane-

.LIDADE. The telescope should be equal to that on an ɣ transit. As vertical angles are frequently of great ınce in plane-table work, the diameter of the vertical arc be large and the sensitiveness of the bubble should be in ion, as pointed out in the specifications for a transit . The axis of the telescope should be parallel to the the metal straight-edge.

.CCESSORIES. A small compass-box, sometimes called a ɔr, is required for determining the magnetic meridian. ɔr leveling the board are also required. Sometimes they ıched to the ruler of the alidade, sometimes they are ɜd with the compass-box. A *plumbing-bar* is occasion- ˌuired and should be furnished with the instrument. ȝ-instruments, scale, etc., a water-proof cover, a case for ving-paper, and a sunshade complete the outfit.

RAVERSE BOARDS are small plane-tables used for rough uch as sketching in contours in topographic surveys. of the telescope two slotted uprights or open sights are

ESTS FOR PLANE-TABLE. The edge of the ruler which ıe base of the alidade should be straight. (See test for -edge, p. 438.) To see if the upper surface of the board ne lay a straight-edge on it in all directions. If it is ittle out it may be scraped or planed down, and then ·d with sandpaper.

The Sextant. The distinguishing characteristic of ;ant is the arrangement of mirrors, which enables the observer to sight at two different objects ***simultaneously***, and thus to measure an angle at a single observation. While other instruments must be kept stationary during the time between the backsight and the foresight, the sextant may be held in the hand, since the two sights are taken at the same time, and horizontal, vertical, or inclined angles may be measured very accurately even though the instrument is in motion. For this reason the sextant is used for observations at sea. In surveying it is used for measuring angles from a boat to points on shore when locating soundings, buoys, etc., by the method shown in Fig. 197, p. 137; it is also used in reconnaissance work, explorations, geological surveys, and for solar observations.

(*a*) To MEASURE A HORIZONTAL ANGLE. In Fig. 577 (*a*) let *B* represent the mirror or *index-glass* which is rigidly attached to the *vernier arm BH*. Let *C* represent the *horizon-glass*, the lower portion of which is a mirror, and the upper portion clear glass. The colored glasses may be turned back out of the way except when making observations on the sun, when they will be needed to protect the eye. Usually three eyepieces are furnished: one for ordinary terrestrial work, one for astronomical work, and one without magnifying power.

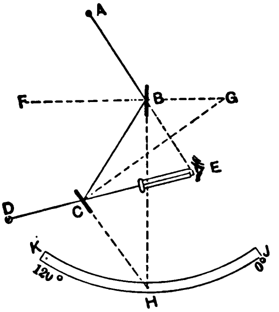

FIG. 577 (*a*).

Let *A* and *D* be the two points sighted at, and *E* the eye of the observer; then the angle required is *AED*.

(1) Holding the sextant in one hand by the handle underneath, bring the plane of the graduated arc *JK* into the plane of the eye and the two points *A* and *D*.

(2) Sight through the upper portion (clear glass) of the horizon-glass *C* directly at *D* and swing the vernier arm *BH* (thus turning the index-glass *B*) until the image of *A* reflected from *B* to the lower half (mirror) of *C* appears superimposed upon *D*.

(3) Clamp the vernier and by means of the tangent-screw bring the images of *A* and *D* into exact coincidence.

(4) *Read* the vernier. The reading is the angle *AED*, but

these three points lie in a horizontal plane the angle is
rue horizontal angle. In most cases, however, where the
t would be used, the difference between the angle and its
ıtal projection would be a negligible quantity.

ractical suggestions. (1) It is a little difficult at first to bring the
ages into coincidence, especially if the observer is in a boat, where
unt of the unsteady motion it may be necessary to make quick
tions. *In such a case it is often best to dispense with the use of the
altogether;* simply place the eye at the center of the ring from
he eyepiece has been removed and proceed as if looking through
ope. This is a good way in which to become accustomed to the
he sextant, and it will be found that angles can be measured by
thod with surprising accuracy. (2) Sight through the telescope
at the fainter object, so that the brighter object will be the one
l. To do this it may be necessary to hold the sextant upside down.
not try to hold the images still in the field of view, but find the
sition of the vernier arm by a series of observations, twisting the
produce a regular oscillating motion, and noting the relation of
ected image to the direct image as they come together. (4) The
g screw that moves the telescope to or from the plane of the arc
ie purpose of centering the two images and making them equally
(5) Keep the fingers off the graduation, as it tarnishes easily.
degrees on the arc are numbered to correspond to twice their
hat is, each degree is marked two degrees, etc., as explained below.
tant is so called because the arc is about 60° long, but angles may
sured to 120° or more. (7) The index correction should be deter-
is accurately as the angle is to be measured. (See p. 606.)

VERTICAL ANGLES may be measured by holding the sex-
that its arc lies in a vertical plane. In observations on
n an artificial horizon, such as a shallow box of mercury,
l; the image of the sun in this reflecting surface and the
elf are the two objects sighted at, the resulting angle being
uble altitude of the sun.

THE THEORY OF THE SEXTANT. If a ray of light is re-
successively from two plane mirrors the angle between
st and last directions of the ray is twice the angle between
ınes of the two mirrors.

. In Fig. 577 (*a*) let *FG* and *CG* be drawn perpendicular to the
of the mirrors *B* and *C* respectively. Let the ray from *A* be de-
at *B* to *C*, and again at *C* to *E*. Since the angle of incidence equals
le of reflection,

$ABF = FBC$ and $BCG = GCE$;
also by geometry $BGC = CHB$.
$BEC = 180° - EBC - BCE = ABC - BCE$.
$BGC = 180° - GBC - BCG = \frac{1}{2}ABC - \frac{1}{2}BCE$.
$\therefore BEC = 2BGC = 2CHB$.

ı the mirrors are brought into parallel planes *CHB* becomes zero
ice the angle *AED* will be zero, i.e. the rays from A and D are par-

allel.* This gives the position of the arm for a reading of 0°. If the arm is moved to any point as *H*, the zero of the vernier will move over the arc an angular distance equal to the angle between the mirrors, which, as shown above, is one half of the required angle *BEC* or *AED*. For this reason the arc is numbered to give at once the angle required at *E*, i.e. each degree is counted as twice its real value.

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* A ray which comes from any point to the eye through the horizon-glass is not strictly parallel to a ray from the same point coming to the eye indirectly by reflection, since the index-glass is several inches out of the direct line of sight, but for sights more than 1000 ft. the error would not exceed from 30 to 40 seconds (see table, p. 105), and for sights of a mile or more it is inappreciable.

CHAPTER XLVI

ADJUSTMENTS

THE actual work of adjusting a surveying instrument is comparatively simple and easy once the reasons for the various steps are clearly understood. If, on the other hand, the reasons are not clear, and the student is content simply to follow directions such as those printed in catalogs of instruments, he is not likely to work intelligently or to gain confidence in his ability to adjust an instrument. The aim in this chapter, therefore, is to lead the student to a thorough understanding of fundamental principles, so that if he forgets the methods and order of adjustments (as he almost surely will) he will be able to reason them out for himself instead of relying upon his memory or upon printed directions.

The adjustments explained are those of the transit, the level, the compass, the plane-table and the sextant.

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578. Why Adjustments are Necessary. When an instrument leaves the hands of the maker it should be in complete adjustment. There are certain parts, however, which are likely to be deranged by accident or by continuous use. Accurate work can often be done with an instrument out of adjustment, provided certain methods of eliminating errors are followed, as for example, the method of double reverse, page 92, but such methods involve extra labor, and hence it saves time to keep an instrument in adjustment. Moreover, there are some errors which cannot be eliminated except by adjusting the instrument. A good instrument will sometimes stay in adjustment for months, nevertheless all instruments should be tested frequently. In accurate leveling, for instance, the level should be tested at least once a day. The more accurate the instrument and the more exacting the requirements the more attention should be paid to the adjustments. No man therefore is a competent surveyor who is unable to adjust his instruments.

579. General Suggestions. The following suggestions apply to the adjustment of all surveying instruments: (1) For each instrument there are usually several adjustments. Each adjustment consists of two steps: first a *test* to determine the error and then the *correction* of this error by turning certain adjusting-screws or nuts. In most cases this is done by inserting an adjusting-pin, hence the terms, capstan screws and capstan nuts. (2) The adjusting-pin should fit snugly into the hole, otherwise the holes will become worn and out of shape. In an emergency a wire nail can be used. (3) If all of the adjustments are badly out, do not perfect the adjustments one at a time, but rather bring the whole instrument to a nice adjustment by repeating the entire series as many times as may be necessary. This is because the adjustment of one part may affect some other part already adjusted. *Hence the final step in the adjustment of any instrument is to test each adjustment to see that none has been disturbed.* For this reason select a place where the adjustments may be made in succession without disturbing the instrument. (4) In making any one adjustment the test and correction should be repeated a number of times. It will save time not to split hairs during the early part of the adjustment, but the more nearly the adjustment is perfected the more carefully it should be made. (5) An instrument will stay in adjustment longer if screws and nuts are left in perfect contact with the surfaces against which they operate. For example, after a screw has come to bearing, a slight turn of the adjusting-pin of, say, 20° will "set" it so that it is not easily disturbed. Undue strain however should be avoided. (6) Before attempting to adjust cross-hairs study carefully the note on page 550 and the photograph on page 551. Tightening the capstan screws which move the cross-hair ring does not affect the tightness of the cross-hairs, but if too tight the whole telescope may be affected. If one pair of screws is fastened tightly while the other pair at right angles is being turned, undue strain may be brought on the first pair if the adjustment is considerable. In such a case loosen all four screws *slightly* before working either pair. (7) In adjusting cross-hairs take the least important first, i.e., the horizontal hair in a transit telescope and the vertical hair in the telescope of a level. (8) In this book the line between the intersection of the cross-hairs and the center of the object-glass is called the *line of sight.* A distinction is made between this line and the *line of collimation* (see p. 553), with which it may or may not coincide. (9) If after adjusting an instrument the intersection of the cross-hairs does not appear to be in the center of the field of vision, the eyepiece probably needs "cen-

tering" (see page 601). (10) Eliminate parallax (see p. 555). (11) It is well to set up the instrument in the shade during adjustment. This is especially true of the level, as a bright sun affects the bubble.

580. The Method of Reversion. *Every* adjustment depends upon the method of reversion, i.e., the adjustment is tested by reversing the instrument, or some part of it, so that an error will become apparent; this *apparent* error is *double* the *true* error, because reversion simply places the error as much to one side as it was on the opposite side before reversion. This will become evident as the adjustments are explained. The thing to remember is that a *single* reversion *doubles* the error.

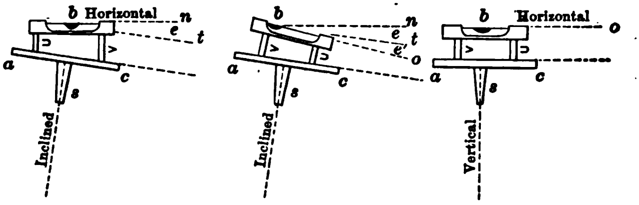

Fig. a Fig. b Fig. c

FIG. 580 (*a*).

(*a*) *Illustration. The reversion of the bubble-tube, end for end,* is an excellent illustration of the method of reversion. Moreover, since it is the basis of three of the six principal adjustments, it is worth while to understand it perfectly.

In Fig. *a* let the bubble be in the center of the tube—its axis *bn* must therefore be horizontal—but let the supports *u* and *v* be of *unequal* length. Then any surface as *ac*, upon which the supports rest, cannot be level, but *a* will be higher than *c*, since *u* is shorter than *v*. Suppose that it is desired to bring the axis of the bubble *bn* parallel to the surface *ac* by making the supports *u* and *v* of equal length; this is equivalent to making *bn* coincide with some line *bt* which has the same inclination *e* with the horizontal that *ac* has. This error *e*, which is to be corrected, is *above* the required line *bt*. Keep the surface *ac* stationary, but take the bubble-tube off, and reverse it end for end (Fig. b). The supports *u* and *v* being attached to the tube, and their lengths as yet being unchanged, the new axis of the bubble *bo* still makes the angle *e* with *ac* and *bt*, but is *below bt* instead of above. In other words, reversion has simply placed the error on the opposite side, and the total error $e+e'=2e$ is *double* the true error. To correct the error therefore change the lengths of the supports *u* and *v* until the bubble moves HALF-way back to the center; *bo* will then coincide with *bt*, and *u* and *v* will be of equal lengths. If now the surface *ac* is made horizontal (Fig. *c*), the bubble will return to the center and its axis *bo* will be horizontal.

(*b*) Let the bubble-tube be *attached* to the surface *ac* by supporting screws *u* and *v*, and let this surface be revolved on a spindle *s*. It is evident that if the axis of this spindle is at right angles to *ac the inclination of ac cannot change during revolution*, and that if the surface is revolved through 180° *the bubble-tube will be turned end for end* just the same as if it had been taken off and reversed. Hence in this case the reasoning and the conclusions of the preceding paragraph still hold good. It is a be noted that before adjustment (Figs. *a* and *b*) the axis of the spindle is inclined; after adjustment (Fig. *c*) it is vertical.

Remark. If the axis of the spindle is not perpendicular to *ac* reversion and correction will still bring the axis of the bubble *perpendicular* to the axis of the spindle.

581. Adjustments of the Transit. THE PRINCIPAL LINES to be considered in the adjustment of the transit are: (1) The line of sight (see p. 553). (2) The axis of the bubble in each plate-level (see p. 544). (3) The supporting axis of the telescope. (4) The vertical axis through the spindles. (5) The axis of the bubble-tube attached to the telescope.

THE PRINCIPAL ADJUSTMENTS are five in number, the first three of which should always be made; the last two are necessary only when the transit is used for measuring vertical angles or for leveling:

I. *The adjustment of the plate-levels*, so that the plates shall lie in a horizontal plane when each bubble is in the center of its tube.

II. *The adjustment of the cross-hairs*, so that the line of sight shall revolve in a plane when the telescope is turned on its supporting axis.

III. *The adjustment of the standards*, so that the line of sight shall revolve in a *vertical* plane when the first two adjustments have been made and the transit is leveled up.

IV. *The adjustment of the telescope level*, so that the axis of the bubble shall be parallel to the line of sight.

V. *The adjustment of the vertical circle*, so that its vernier shall read zero when the line of sight is horizontal.

THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF ADJUSTMENTS. (1) The first adjustment is important in all transit work. (2) The second is important in work which involves plunging the telescope. (3) The third is important in the measurement of *horizontal* angles between points which differ considerably in elevation. Such measurements are also affected to some extent by the first two adjustments. (4) The fourth adjustment is necessary when the transit is used as a level. (5) The fifth adjustment is not essential, but it facilitates the reading of vertical angles.

I. ADJUSTMENT OF THE PLATE-LEVELS. *Object.* To make the axis of each bubble parallel to the plate to which the bubble-tubes are attached, so that when each bubble is in the center of its tube the plate shall be truly horizontal. This is *equivalent to bringing* the axes of the bubbles perpendicular to the axis of the spindle upon which the plate turns, provided this axis has been made by the instrument-maker perpendicular to the plate.*

Test. The final test is to see that each bubble comes to rest in the center of its tube when the plate is turned on its spindle to any position from 0° to 360°. During adjustment, however, repeated tests for each bubble are made as follows:

(1) Level up and bring the bubble-tube parallel to two diagonally opposite leveling-screws.

(2) Turn the plate half-way around until the bubble-tube is parallel to the same pair of screws, but reversed end for end. If the bubble does not come to rest at the center the tube needs adjusting.

Correction. (1) Bring the bubble half-way back to the center of its tube by turning one and then the other of the capstan screws which support the ends of the tube. (2) Bring it the rest of the way (i.e., to the center) by leveling the plate with the leveling thumb-screws. (3) Repeat the test and the adjustment until the bubble remains in the center when the plate is turned half-way around. (4) Adjust the other bubble-tube in like manner. (5) Apply the final test of turning the plate completely around from 0° to 360°.

Principle involved. The reason why the bubble is brought *half*-way back after reversion is explained in Art. 580, p. 583.

Practical suggestions. (1) Set up the transit so that it is *firm.* If a place is chosen where a 300-ft. sight can be taken each way, and where the telescope can be directed to some high point, all four of the remaining adjustments can be made without disturbing the instrument. (2) It is better to clamp the lower plate and to allow the upper plate to remain unclamped throughout the adjustment. When the final test is satisfactory, clamp both plates together, loosen the lower clamp, and turn the two plates completely around; both bubbles should remain in the centers of their tubes; if they do not it shows that the axes of the inner and outer spindles (see photograph, p. 565) are not parallel, a defect best remedied by the maker. If the axes are not parallel no error will be caused in the measurement of horizontal angles unless they are measured by repetition, provided the plate-levels are adjusted perpendicular to the axis of the inner spindle. (3) If the bubbles are not badly out both may be adjusted simultaneously, taking care to reverse one tube parallel to one pair of leveling-screws and the other tube parallel to the other pair. (4) It will often suffice to turn one capstan screw only, lowering slightly the end of the tube where the bubble lies, or raising the other end. (5) Turning a capstan screw clockwise screws it into the plate and therefore *lowers* the corresponding end of the tube; counter-clockwise unscrews the screw and *raises* the end of the tube.

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* If the axis of the spindle is not perpendicular to the plate the adjustment of the plate-levels does not in any way involve the horizontality of the plate. For this reason it is more correct to consider the relation of the plate-levels to the *vertical axis*, ignoring the plate altogether For the sake of clearness, however, it is better to consider the parallelism of the plate-levels to the plate as the real object of the adjustment, especially as the vertical axis is so nearly perpendicular to the plate in the ordinary transit that the error is inappreciable.

II. Adjustment of the cross-hairs. This adjustment consists of two steps: (1) adjustment of the horizontal hair and (2) adjustment of the vertical hair. The former affects only leveling operations and measurements of vertical angles, while the latter affects all transit work, especially that in which the telescope is plunged. The adjustment of the horizontal hair is often overlooked or ignored.

Note. Before adjusting the cross-hairs separately it is well to see that the vertical hair is truly vertical; if the two cross-hairs have been put on the ring exactly at right angles to each other the horizontal hair will then be truly horizontal. Test the vertical hair by seeing if it coincides with a plumb-line or the corner of a building, or, another method, with the supporting axis horizontal, sight upon some well-defined point and depress the telescope; the point should appear to move up and down the hair. If the hair is not vertical loosen all four capstan screws slightly take hold of their heads and turn the ring until the hair is vertical. (See note, page 550). Or, better still, tap the loose heads gently with the finger-tip or with a pencil, since the amount which the ring must be removed is slight.

Adjustment of the Horizontal Cross-hair

This adjustment is necessary only when vertical angles are to be measured with more than ordinary accuracy, or when careful leveling is to be done with the transit.

Object. To bring the horizontal hair into the plane of motion of the optical center of the object-glass; if it is not in that plane the line of sight will change as the object-glass is moved in or out for focusing.

Test. (1) Hold a leveling-rod on a stake driven near the transit, clamp the telescope so that the line of sight is *approximately* parallel to the surface of the ground for about 300 ft., bring the center of the target to the line of sight, and note the rod reading. (2) Without moving the telescope read a rod upon a second stake about 300 ft. away. (3) Unclamp, plunge, turn the plates, bring the inverted telescope to the former reading on the first stake, and tighten all clamps. If the horizontal hair does not strike the former reading on the second stake it should be adjusted.

Correction. Set the target at the mean of the two readings taken at the second stake. With the telescope still clamped in the position it was in when the second reading was taken, *move the* horizontal hair by means of the capstan screws until it bisects the target, when the rod is held on the second stake. Loosen the capstan screw on top of the telescope and tighten the opposite screw to move the hair upward *as observed through an* INVERTING *eyepiece,* and *vice versa* to move it downward. (Why? See p. 550.) Repeat the test and correction until the adjustment is perfected. *The principle involved* is that of single reversion; the telescope being inverted *once,* the error is doubled. (See Fig. 582 (I), p. 593.)

Practical suggestions. (1) It is not necessary that the telescope should be level when sighting at the leveling-rod—any line of sight will do. (2) It is better to use two leveling-rods, one for each stake, then the target may be left undisturbed on the rod near the transit. In an emergency two straight sticks or transit poles may be used in place of leveling-rods. A small piece of paper wrapped around each stick and held in place by a rubber band will serve as a target, the band marking the points sighted at. Use three bands for the pole at the farther stake, one for the first sight, one for the second, and one half-way between.

Adjustment of the Vertical Cross-hair

This is often called the *adjustment of the line of collimation.* (See p. 553.)

Object. To make the line of sight *perpendicular* to the supporting axis of the telescope, so that when the telescope is plunged the line of sight will generate a *plane;* if the line of sight is not perpendicular it will generate the surface of a cone. In practice the chief object of the adjustment is to be able to produce a straight line by backsighting and then simply plunging the telescope *once.*

Test. The test corresponds exactly to reversing in azimuth and altitude or double reverse. (See p. 92.) Sight on some permanent backsight, plunge, establish point number *one.* Leave the telescope inverted, turn upper plate, sight on the permanent backsight, plunge, and establish point number *two.* If these two points do not coincide the vertical cross-hair must be adjusted.

Correction. (1) Measuring from point *two* towards point *one,* mark a *third* point *one fourth* of the distance from point *two* to point *one.* (2) By *loosening* one of the capstan screws on the side of the telescope and *tightening* the other, move the cross-hair ring until the vertical hair is on point *three.* (3) Repeat the test and the adjustment until the two points established by the double reverse exactly coincide.

Principle involved. This is a *double* application of the method of reversion. Reversing (plunging) the telescope once doubles the error (Art. 580); reversing a second time again doubles the error *on the opposite side,* so that the total *apparent* error is *four* times the *true* error. This may be better understood by referring to Fig. 581 (II).

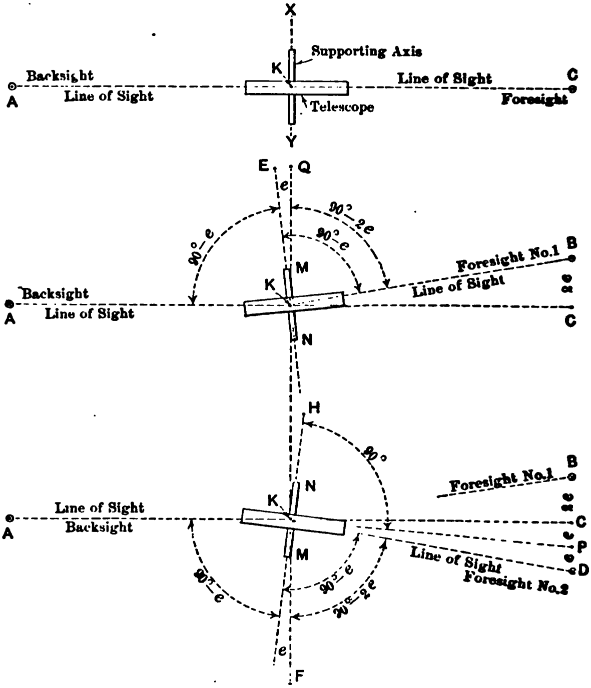

FIG. 581 (II).

Illustration. Let XY be the supporting axis of a telescope (top figure in Fig. 581 (II)). If AKX is an exact right angle the line of sight is in adjustment, because backsighting on A and plunging the telescope the line of collimation will generate a plane, striking a point C which is in the line AK produced. But suppose the line of sight is out of adjustment by an amount e, that is, the angle AKE (middle figure) is not 90° but $90°-e$. When the telescope is plunged the line of sight will generate the surface of a cone and strike a point B instead of C. From the figure it is evident that QKB is $90°-2e$ and hence $BKC=2e$. Leave the telescope inverted, turn and backsight on A again. (Bottom figure: notice the reversed positions of M and N, the ends of the supporting axis.) Plunge the telescope; the line of collimation will strike some point D, and it is evident that $DKC=2e$. In practice the point C is not found, but the angle *BKD* equals 4*c*. Hence mark a point *P* one fourth the distance *DB* from *D* and move the cross-hair ring until the vertical hair is on *P*. Then *HKP* is a right angle—the object of the adjustment.

Question. Why is the horizontal hair adjusted before the vertical hair?

Question In adjusting the vertical hair is the horizontal hair necessarily thrown out of adjustment? If not, why not? (See note, p. 550.)

Practical suggestions. (1) Set up in some comparatively level place where a sight of about 300 ft. each way can be had; closer adjustment can be made at this than at longer distances. (2) Select some well-defined point for a permanent backsight; if necessary set a very slender stake or establish a backsight in some other way. (3) Each foresight should be marked and numbered. The backsight and the position of the transit can often be chosen so that the foresights will fall on some vertical surface, where pencil-marks can be distinctly seen through the telescope, as, for example, marks on a sheet of paper tacked to the side of a building. (4) When the man who marks the foresights has measured back one fourth the apparent error, he should hold his pencil on the point, and *give some well-understood signal* that the point indicated is the one to which the vertical hair should be adjusted, otherwise points may be confused by the man at the transit. If the transitman is sighting at a vertical surface, confusion may be avoided by drawing a pencil-line which can be seen from the transit. As tests are repeated erase all lines previously drawn, so that for each test there is only one line that the transitman can see, i.e., the line to which the vertical hair should be adjusted. An experienced transitman can often make this adjustment without help, by taking for a foresight some such object as a window-pane, estimating the error each time and repeating the test and correction until the vertical hair bisects the object used as a foresight. (5) On some transits there are three sets of capstan-screws. Those nearest the eye adjust the eyepiece, the next set are for the stadia wires, and the *third* set for the cross-hair ring. In this adjustment, therefore, *use the two side screws farthest from the eyepiece.* (6) If, in looking through the telescope, the vertical hair should *apparently* be moved to the *right* in order to cover the point indicated, *loosen* the capstan screw on the *right-hand* side of the telescope and tighten the opposite screw. This really moves the vertical cross-hair to the *left*, since the cross-hair ring is drawn towards the screw that is tightened (see p. 550), but the eyepiece inverts the movement (p. 552) so that it *appears* to be drawn to the *right*. Hence the rule: *Loosen the screw towards which the cross-hair must* APPARENTLY *be moved, and tighten the opposite screw.** (7) Do not be too particular about getting the cross-hair on the point until after two or three tests by double reverse have been made; the nearer the adjustment approaches completion the more nearly should the hair split the point. (8) The final adjustment can often be made by simply tightening one screw without loosening the other, but screws must not be strained (see *Suggestion* (6), p. 582). (9) When the line of sight is in adjustment it should coincide with the line of collimation, and this in turn should be concentric with the geometrical axis of the telescope. If these conditions are not fulfilled errors may be introduced as the objective is moved in or out for sights of different lengths. Perfect adjustment in this respect depends largely on the maker of the instrument. (10) Since the line of sight is determined solely by the position of the intersection of the cross-hairs with respect to the center of the object-glass, it is not affected by the position of the eyepiece. The latter may be moved, in any direction, or even entirely removed and a new one substituted without affecting the adjustment of the cross-hairs.

III. ADJUSTMENT OF THE STANDARDS. *Object.* By the preceding adjustment of the vertical hair the line of sight has been made to revolve in a *plane;* the object of the adjustment of the standards is to make this plane vertical when the plate to which the standards are attached is level, i.e., to make the supporting axis parallel to the plate by making the standards of equal heights.*

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* This is assuming that the eyepiece is inverting, i.e., it inverts the image so that objects appear right side up. (See p. 552..)

Test. (1) Level up, sight to some high and well-defined point, clamp to prevent motion sidewise, depress the telescope without plunging, and mark point number *one.* (2) Unclamp, plunge, turn plates half-way around, and with inverted telescope backsight again at the high point, depress the telescope without plunging, and establish point number *two;* if it does not coincide with point number *one* the standards should be adjusted.

Correction. (1) Mark a point half-way between the first and second point. (2) Sight on this middle point, clamp, and point the telescope upward; the line of sight will not quite strike the original high point. (3) Make it strike the point by raising or lowering one end of the supporting axis. This is done by turning the capstan screw near the top of the standard, ***loosening or tightening at the same time*** the screws which fasten the cap of the standard. Repeat the test and correction until the two points exactly coincide after reversion.

Principle involved. Since the telescope is plunged (i.e., reversed) but *once,* this is a case of single reversion, and the apparent error is *double* the true error—not four times the error as in the adjustment of the vertical hair, where the telescope was plunged twice. This is evident from Fig. 581 (III).

Illustration. In the first position of the axis, Fig. 581 (III), the *right*-hand end is the higher; after backsighting on A and depressing the telescope the intersection of the cross-hairs falls on B. Turning the plate half-way around brings the higher end of the axis to the *left,* so that the second point falls at C. The point M is *approximately* where the line of sight should strike when the axis is horizontal, i.e., A and M are in the same *vertical* plane.

Remark. Theoretically the figure does not truly represent the adjustment, and the point M is not half-way between C and B except under certain conditions. Two oblique planes are generated by the line of sight, which are not truly represented by AB and AC. The problem is therefore one in *descriptive geometry.* (See Nugent's Plane Surveying, p. 240.) In practice, however, points B and C are so near together that by taking M half-way between and making the correction $e = CM = NA$ the supporting axis is made *more nearly* horizontal, until after a few trials the adjustment is perfected.

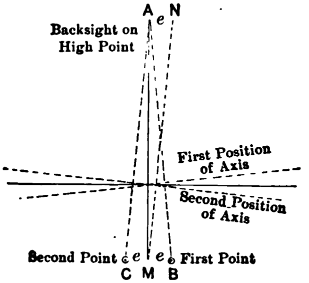

FIG. 581 (III).

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* *More correctly,* perpendicular to the vertical axis (see foot-note, p. 585).

Practical suggestions. For a permanent backsight a church spire, a point on some high building or some other well-defined point may be taken. When no such point is visible a comparatively low point 40 or 50 feet above the ground may be chosen, but the transit should be correspondingly near, so that when the telescope is depressed it will describe as large an arc as possible. (2) The usual method of correction is to bring the cross-hairs on *M*. If, however, *M* is nearly on the same level with the telescope, it is better to sight on *M* and then point the telescope upward before making the correction, for the higher the telescope is pointed the more the direction of the line of sight is changed by raising or lowering one end of the supporting axis (*Why?*), and the easier it is to gauge the amount of adjustment. (3) To decide whether the adjustable end of the supporting axis is too high or too low, note in which direction the second plane generated slopes, and remember that the supporting axis is perpendicular to that plane. (See Fig. 581 (III).) (4) If the end of the axis must be raised *loosen first* the screws fastening the cap to the standard before turning the capstan screw.

IV. ADJUSTMENT OF THE TELESCOPE LEVEL. This adjustment is necessary when the transit is used as a level, or when vertical angles with reference to a horizontal plane are to be measured.

Object. To make the axis of the bubble parallel to the line of sight when the latter is horizontal.

Test and correction. Exactly the same as the "peg" adjustment of the level (see p. 597).

V. ADJUSTMENT OF THE VERTICAL CIRCLE AND VERNIER. This adjustment affects the measurement of vertical angles with reference to a horizontal plane. Note that it does not affect the measurement of a vertical angle between *two points*.

Object. To make the vertical circle read zero when the line of sight is horizontal. It is assumed that the transit having been leveled up, the vertical axis is truly vertical because of previous adjustments.

Test. Bring the bubble of the telescope level exactly to the center by clamp- and tangent-screw, and see by inspection if the zero on the vernier and the zero on the vertical circle coincide.

Correction. Shift the *vernier* until the zeroes coincide, by loosening the screws which hold it to the standard. On some transits other provision is made for shifting the vernier or the vertical arc.

Practical suggestion. (1) If the zeroes cannot be made to coincide, note the *amount* and *sign* of the difference. This will be an *index error* to be applied as a correction to each angle of elevation or depression. (2) If there is no level underneath the telescope, make the line of collimation horizontal by the method used in the "peg" adjustment, i.e. set the transit exactly half way between two points, clamp the telescope in as nearly a horizontal position as can be estimated and proceed as directed on page 598.

582. Adjustments of the Wye-level. THE PRINCIPAL LINES to be considered in adjusting a level are:

(1) The *line of sight* from the intersection of the cross-hairs to the optical center of the object-glass.

(2) The *line of collimation,* with which the line of sight should be made to coincide.

(3) The *axis of the collars or rings,* a line joining the centers of the collars.

(4) The *axis of the bubble* (see p. 544).

(5) The *line of the bottom of the wyes,* a line joining the lowest points, where the collars rest on the inner surfaces of the wyes.

(6) The *vertical axis* of the level through the spindle. For sake of clearness another line will be considered, viz.:

(7) The *axis of the level-bar,* a line through the horizontal bar which supports the wyes. This axis is assumed to be *perpendicular to the vertical axis;* it may or may not coincide with the geometrical axis of the level-bar.

THE OBJECT OF THE PRINCIPAL ADJUSTMENTS is to make lines (1), (2), and (3) coincide, and then to bring the first five lines parallel to (7) *and hence perpendicular to* (6). The three principal adjustments may be outlined as follows: Let Fig. 582 represent a level out of adjustment, the errors of course being greatly exaggerated.

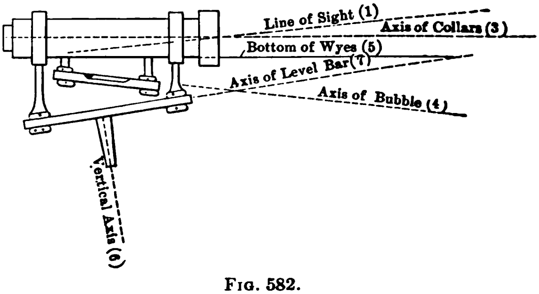

FIG. 582.

I. *The adjustment of the cross-hairs* makes the *line of sight* coincide with the *axis of the collars.* This is done by moving the cross-hair ring, and in a well-made instrument results also in bringing the line of sight into the line of collimation.

II. *The adjustment of the level-tube* brings the *axis of the bubble parallel to the* bottom *of the wyes,* whether the collars are of the same size or not. This is done by turning the screws which hold the ends of the tube to the telescope. In a well-made level the collars should be true circles, of the same size and each in perfect contact with the inner surface of the wye; then the *bottom of the wyes*, the *axis of the collars*, the *line of sight*, and *the axis of the bubble* are all parallel as a result of the first two adjustments.

III. The *adjustment of the wyes* brings the *axis of the bubble* parallel to the *axis of the level-bar*. This is done by making the wyes of equal height. All lines should now be *perpendicular* to *the vertical axis*, which is the true object of the three adjustments.

Remark. Before taking up the adjustments in detail the student should thoroughly acquaint himself with the relations which should exist between the principal lines as set forth in this article.

I. Adjustment of the cross-hairs. *Object*. To make the *line of sight* coincide with the *axis of the collars*.

Test. (1) Direct the line of sight to some well-defined point and clamp. (2) Loosen the clips which hold the telescope, rotate the telescope half-way around in the wyes (not end for end) until the bubble-tube is above the telescope. If the line of sight does not strike the point the cross-hairs should be adjusted. In the final test the intersection of the cross-hairs should remain on the point throughout a complete revolution of the telescope.

Correction. If both hairs are off the point, each must be adjusted by bringing it *half-way* back. This is done by moving the cross-hair ring, loosening the upper or lower capstan screw and tightening the opposite screw for the horizontal hair, loosening a side capstan screw, and tightening the opposite screw for the vertical hair (see p. 550). Repeat the test and adjustment until the latter is perfected.

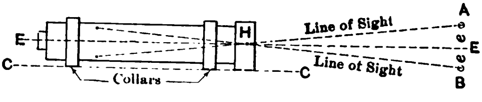

Fig. 582 (I).

The principle involved is that of single reverse. If the line of sight is directed to *A*, Fig. 582 (I), and the telescope is then rotated the line of sight will strike some point at *B*. The angle

AH B is twice the error. In like manner the distance that the vertical hair is to the right or to the left of the point, after reversion, is double the error.

Practical suggestions. (1) It is not necessary that the telescope should be horizontal while making this adjustment so long as the wyes remain in a fixed position. Any two points of support could be used in place of the wyes. (2) A nail in a fence or building about 300 ft. away, or, better yet, a piece of paper tacked up with a fine cross marked on it, will serve for a point to sight at if no other definite point is visible. (3) Loosen the capstan screw *towards* which a cross-hair should be moved (as observed through the ordinary eyepiece), and tighten the opposite screw. (See hint (6), p. 582). (4) The capstan screws farthest from the eyepiece move the cross-hair ring. (*DD* in the photograph p. 551). (5) Adjusting for one hair may disturb the adjustment of the other. (6) Read hints (7), (8), and (10), page 582. (7) It is important in leveling to have the horizontal hair truly horizontal. Test as follows: Level up, close the clips so that the pin will hold the telescope in place (or see that the mark on the collar coincides with the mark on the wye). Mark the point where the line of sight strikes some vertical surface a short distance away. Revolve the telescope on its vertical axis so that the point appears to move from one edge of the field of view to the other; if the point is covered by the cross-hair throughout the movement the hair is horizontal (assuming that the axis of revolution is truly vertical). If the cross-hair is not horizontal loosen slightly all four capstan screws and gently tap their heads to move the cross-hair ring (as directed in the note, p. 596). Repeat the test and correction until the hair is truly horizontal. This will bring the other hair vertical, or nearly enough vertical to plumb the rod by, since the hairs are fastened to the ring at right angles to each other. (8) When the adjustment has been completed for a point 300 ft. away, focus on a point near the instrument, say 20 ft. away, and repeat the test. If the instrument is out of adjustment for this second point, either the object-glass slide does not work parallel to the axis of the collars or the optical center is not in the axis of the collars. On some makes of levels the object-glass slide can be adjusted (see p. 602), but the latter defect can be remedied only by the maker.

II. ADJUSTMENT OF THE BUBBLE-TUBE. This adjustment consists of *two* steps, neither of which, theoretically, is entirely independent of the other.

First Step.

Object. To bring the *axis of the bubble* into the *same plane* with the *axis of the collars.*

Test. (1) Level up and clamp the telescope over two diagonally opposite leveling-screws. (2) Loosen the clips, rotate the telescope a few degrees in its wyes (not end for end), until the bubble-tube is no longer underneath the telescope. If the bubble does not remain in the center the tube should be adjusted. In the final test the bubble should remain in the center when the tube is swung to either side.

Correction. Bring the bubble *all* the way back to the center by turning the capstan screws on each *side* of the level-holder, *usually at* the object-glass end of the tube.

Principle involved. There is no reversion during the test; hence the *apparent* error is equal to the *true* error, not double it. Before adjustment the *axis of the bubble* generates a *hyperboloid of revolution of one nappe*—the more the adjustment is perfected the more nearly will it generate a cylinder.

Practical suggestions. (1) Since in most of the later instruments the telescope is not free to turn, being held in place by a pin in one of the clips, this adjustment is not important except as it prepares the way for the second step, in which the clips are left open. (2) If, when the telescope is rotated first to one side, then to the other the bubble travels toward the *same* end, it shows that the bubble-tube is conical instead of cylindrical and the adjustment will not correct it. (3) Before beginning the adjustment put on the sunshade. This is not of much importance in this adjustment; but in some of the following adjustments it is, since the maker usually plans to have the telescope in perfect balance when the sunshade is on and the eyepiece and objective each at the average focus. (4) In some instruments it is necessary to loosen the capstan nuts used in the second step before the screw used in this step can be turned.

Remark: Assuming that the axis of the bubble and the axis of the collar are in the same vertical plane, the bubble will still move toward one end of the tube when the telescope is rotated unless the axis of the bubble is parallel to the axis of the collar and to the bottom of the wyes (the object of the second step). Hence it may be necessary to repeat both the first and second step until the two corresponding tests are satisfactory.

Second Step in the Adjustment of the Bubble-tube.

Object. To make the *axis of the bubble* parallel to the *bottom of the wyes.*

Second test. (1) Level up and clamp the telescope over two diagonally opposite leveling-screws. (2) Loosen clips, take the telescope out of its wyes, and replace it *turned end for end.* If the bubble does not return to the center the tube should be adjusted.

Second correction. Bring the bubble half-way back to the center by lowering the end of the tube towards which the bubble has moved, or, what is equivalent, by raising the other end. This is done by turning the capstan *nuts* which hold one end of the tube to the telescope. Level up again, and repeat the test and adjustment until reversion can be made without causing any change in the position of the bubble.

Principle involved. This is a case of single reversion, exactly like that explained on p. 583. Before reversion the *axis of the bubble BB* in Fig. 582 (II) (next page) is horizontal, but *not* parallel to *CC,* the bottom of the collars; or, since the bottom of the collars and the bottom of the wyes are in contact, *BB* is not parallel to the bottom of the wyes, also represented by *CC.* The bottom of the wyes *CC* is kept stationary during the test, and therefore corresponds to *ac*, Fig. 580 (*b*), p. 583. Hence turning the bubble-tube end for end doubles the error.

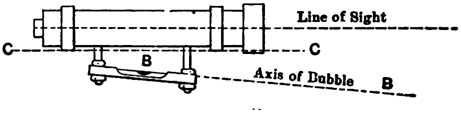

FIG. 582 (II).

Practical suggestions. (1) Great care is necessary in taking the telescope out and replacing it in the wyes to avoid jarring or disturbing the rest of the instrument. (2) Loosen the upper capstan nut first, raise or lower the lower nut as the case requires, and finally bring home the upper nut in completing the adjustment. Usually the nuts are at one end of the bubble-tube only. (3) Notice that this adjustment, like the adjustment of the cross-hairs, could be perfected on any two points of support independent of the wyes. (4) Although by this adjustment the axis of the bubble is made parallel to the bottom of the wyes, it does not follow that it is also parallel to the *line of sight*, even though the latter has been made by the adjustment of the cross-hairs to coincide with tne *axis of the collars;* for the collars may not be true circles of equal diameter; if they are not, this method of adjustment fails and the "peg" method must be used. (See p. 599.)

III. ADJUSTMENT OF THE WYES. *Object.* To make the *axis of the bubble* parallel to the *axis of the level-bar*, and thus to make all the *principal lines* of the level *perpendicular* to the *vertical axis.* Practically, the object is to get the two wyes of equal height.

Test. (1) Level up, bring the telescope over two diagonally opposite leveling-screws, and see that the bubble is exactly in the center. (2) Revolve the telescope on its spindle half-way around or until it is over the same pair of leveling-screws, but reversed end for end. If the bubble does not remain in the center the wyes should be adjusted. In the final test the bubble should remain in the center during a complete revolution of the telescope.

Correction. Bring the bubble half-way back by turning the large capstan nuts, i.e., those at the ends of the level-bar, thus changing the heights of the wyes above the axis of the level-bar until they are equal. Level up the instrument again, and repeat the test and the adjustment until the position of the bubble is not changed by revolving the telescope on its spindle.

Caution. On some wye-levels there are one or two small set-screws in the uprights at the end of the level bar; these must be loosened before the capstan nuts can be turned.

Principle involved. This is also a case of single reversion, exactly like that explained on p. 583, also exactly similar to the first adjustment of the transit. The bubble-tube is attached to the level-bar by the supporting wyes. Before reversion the axis of the bubble is horizontal, but since the inclination of the level bar *HH* does not change during revolution it corresponds to *ac*, p. 583, and reversion doubles the error.

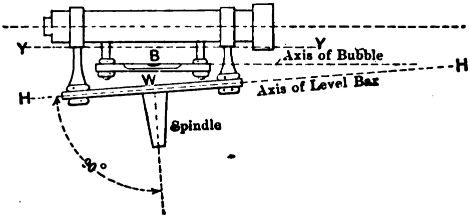

FIG. 582 (III).

Practical suggestions. (1) When the first and second adjustments of the level are "out," it is not apparent unless tests are made; but when the third adjustment is "out" it is known at once, since the bubble will not remain in the center. For this reason undue importance is too often attached to this last adjustment. In reality it does not affect the accuracy of the work, provided the bubble is brought to the center of its tube just before each sight is taken. The adjustment is made simply as a matter of convenience to save this continual leveling up. A good levelman will not depend upon it, but will watch the bubble instinctively and always bring it to the center before taking any important sight. (2) It is well to make the first test with the telescope over one pair of leveling-screws, the next test over the other pair, alternating until the adjustment is nearly perfected, when it may be completed over a single pair of screws. (3) Loosen the upper nut, then raise or lower the lower nut as the case requires. Though nuts are provided at each end of the bar, unless the adjustment is badly out, the adjustment can usually be made wholly by those at one end. (4) When unable to make the adjustment correctly, examine the outside socket to see that it is securely set in the main socket, and also notice that the clamp does not bear on the ring which it encircles. When these are correct and the error is still apparent it is probably due to some imperfection of the interior spindle. (5) Having completed all three adjustments of the level they should be verified by the "peg-method" test. (See *Remark*, below.)

583. The "Peg Adjustment."

Object. To make the line of sight and the axis of the bubble parallel.

Remark. This adjustment is also called the *direct* adjustment in contrast to the *indirect* adjustment explained in the preceding article. It is used mostly for the adjustment of the dumpy level and for the level on a transit telescope. The chief advantage of the wye-level lies in the ease with which it may be adjusted by the indirect method; yet if certain defects exist—as, for example, inequality of the rings—they are not disclosed by the indirect test. Hence, after the wye-level has been adjusted by the methods of the preceding article, it should be tested by the peg method explained below. (See also suggestion 7 on page 599.)

There are two methods of making the peg adjustment.

First Method.

Test. (1) Drive two stakes *A* and *B* (Fig. 583) from 300 to 400 ft. apart, and set up at *C* a third point *exactly* half-way between the other two. (2) Take rod-readings R_1 and R_2 on stakes at *A* and *B*. The difference in the readings will be the *true* difference in elevations d_1 of *A* and *B*, *no matter how much the instrument may be out of adjustment.* Set up again near one of the points, say at *F*, and again take rod-readings on *A* and *B*. If the difference in elevation of *A* and *B* as found from the last two readings agrees with d_1 (i.e., R_2–R_1), the level is in adjustment.

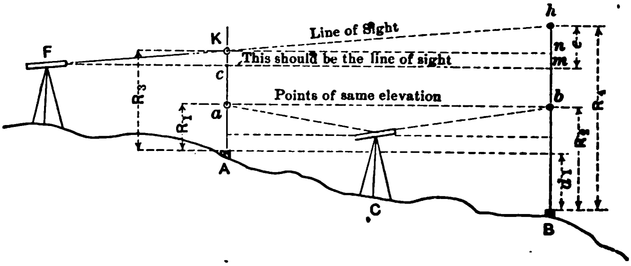

Fig. 583.

Error. If the level is out of adjustment, let R_3 and R_4 be the rod-readings taken when the instrument is at *F*. The line of sight should strike *m*, hence the error is $hm = e$. The error for a distance between stakes *A* and *B* (i.e., distance *Kn*) is *kn*, and from similar triangles $e = \frac{Fm}{cm}(d_2 - d_1)$ where $d_2 = R_4 - R_3$ and $d_1 = R_2 - R_1$.

Correction. There are two methods of correcting the error—(1) by adjusting the *cross-hairs* and (2) by adjusting the *bubble-tube.*

To correct by adjusting the cross-hairs. (1) Compute *e* from the above formula and set the target at $(R_4 - e)$, thus bringing it to *m*. Clamp the instrument (telescope still pointing at the last sight *h*) and make the horizontal hair bisect the target by turning the lower and upper capstan screws that move the *cross*-hair ring. (See *Note*, p. 550.) The *line of sight* should now be in the line Fm. Since the bubble was in the center of its tube when the reading was taken on h, and since the telescope has not been moved, it should still be in the center, and its axis should now be parallel to the line of sight.

To correct by adjusting the bubble-tube. (1) Compute e and set the target at $(R_4 - e)$. (2) By means of the leveling-screws incline the telescope until the line of sight strikes m; this throws the bubble out, but makes the line of sight truly *horizontal.* (3) Raise or lower one end of the bubble-tube by turning the capstan nuts that hold it to the telescope (see *Suggestion* (2), p. 596) until the bubble returns to the center.

Practical suggestions:

1. In Fig. 583 the line of sight to h is inclined *upward*; when it is inclined *downward* h falls below m, and e must be *added* to R instead of subtracted.
2. The points ACB and F should be approximately in a straight line.
3. It is well to take AB and FA, so that $\frac{Fm}{cm}$ is some even fraction. For example, if $AB = 400$ ft. and $FA = 10$ then $\frac{Fm}{cm} = \frac{41}{40}$.
4. When the level is at C, several sets of readings should be taken on A and B to determine accurately the difference in elevation d_1.
5. If the vertical axis is truly vertical, but the line of sight is inclined, the latter generates a cone; the base of which, represented by ab, is horizontal; hence all points in the base, including a and b, have the same elevation.
6. After adjusting for the target at m set it for the correct reading at c. This not only serves as a check, but also detects any error in the movement of the object-glass slide, since the latter must be run far out in focusing on F so close to A, i.e. the line of motion must be *straight* and *parallel* to the axis of the collars.
7. The three adjustments of a wye-level having been made in the usual way, if the level is then tested by the peg method it follows that: (1) There is no error in the movement of the object-glass. (2) The collars are of the same size. (3) That the line of sight is parallel to the axis of the rings (4) That the axis of the bubble is parallel to the bottom of the wyes.
8. If the object-glass slide is not straight the engineer cannot remedy it. If the line of motion is not parallel, on some instruments the object-glass slide can be adjusted (see p. 602). If the other sources of error suggested in (7) exist, the level may be adjusted by the peg method and used as a dumpy level.
9. In the wye-level and in the transit, since the cross-hairs have been adjusted to meet certain conditions, it is better to leave them as they are and to adjust the bubble-tube; with the dumpy level it may be otherwise.

PEG ADJUSTMENT. SECOND METHOD.

In this method the level is not set up half-way between the pegs, as in the preceding method, but it is set up first very near one stake and then very near the other. Two sets of readings are thus obtained, and the true difference in elevation is obtained by taking the average of the two *differences*, as in reciprocal leveling. (See p. 243.)

Test. (1) Set up near one stake so that when the rod is held on the stake the eye-end of the telescope will swing within an inch or two of the face of the rod. (2) Read the rod on this stake with the eye at the object-glass, thus looking through the telescope "*wrong end to.*" (3) Take a reading on the second stake in the usual manner. The difference between the first two readings may be called d_1. (4) Set up in a similar position near the second stake, repeat the process, and obtain a second difference d_2. If d_1 and d_2 are not equal the *line of sight* and the *axis of the bubble* are not parallel.

Correction. The error is $\frac{1}{2}(d_2-d_1)$. Apply this to the last rod-reading, set the target, and make the adjustment by one of the two methods explained on page 598, according to whether it is desired to adjust the *cross-hairs* or the *bubble-tube.*

Principle involved. If R_1 and R_2 are the first two rod-readings, R_3 and R_4 the last two, and e is the error, then the true difference in elevation is $R_1-(R_2-e)$, and also $(R_3-e)-R_4$. But $R_1-(R_2-e)=(R_3-e)-R_4$ hence $e=\frac{(R_3-R_4)-(R_2-R_1)}{2}$. Note that R_1 and R_4 are on the first stake and R_3 and R_2 are on the second stake.

Remark. The student should draw a figure illustrating the above principle. The first method of "peg" adjustment is generally preferred to that given here.

PEG ADJUSTMENT. MODIFIED METHOD.

When a strip of nearly level ground can be found the following modification of the peg adjustment can be used to advantage. (1) Set up exactly half-way between two pegs, 300 or 400 ft. apart as in the first method, but drive the higher peg down until the two tops are on the same level, i.e., R_1 equals R_2. (2) Set up the instrument nearly over one peg hold a leveling-rod on the peg and set the target at the height of the cross-hairs as in the second method. (3) Without disturbing the rod-reading, point the telescope at the target as the rod is held on the other peg, and adjust the level tube until the bubble stands in the center. This method avoids all computation since the line of sight has been made parallel to the top of the pegs and is therefore horizontal

584. Adjustments of the Dumpy-level. PRINCIPAL LINES. *Unlike* the wye-level, the telescope of the dumpy level cannot be taken from its wyes, but instead it is rigidly attached to two uprights or standards. Hence two lines of the wye-level are eliminated, i.e., the axis of the collars and the bottom of the wyes. The other lines remain the same as in the wye-level. After making the horizontal hair truly horizontal (see *Note* on page 586), and testing the object-glass slide (see p. 602) there are only two adjustments to be made.

I. ADJUSTMENT OF THE CROSS-HAIRS AND THE BUBBLE-TUBE. *Object.* To make the axis of the bubble and the line of sight parallel to each other. *Test and adjustment.* Exactly the same as the "peg adjustment" explained in the preceding article.

Practical suggestions. (1) In some dumpy-levels the bubble-tube cannot be adjusted, hence the engineer has no choice, but must adjust the cross-hairs. In levels where both the bubble-tube and the cross-hairs are adjustable it is better to adjust the bubble-tube (second method of correction, p. 599), since the cross-hairs once placed in the optical axis of the telescope are not disturbed by this adjustment. Many engineers prefer a dumpy level in which the bubble-tube is fixed (non-adjustable), since it can then be placed by the maker once for all parallel to the optical axis, and hence when the line of sight is adjusted it will coincide with or be parallel to that axis.

II. ADJUSTMENT OF THE STANDARDS. *Object.* To make the line of sight and the axis of the bubble parallel to the axis of the level-bar, and hence perpendicular to the vertical axis. *Test and adjustment.* Exactly the same as for the third adjustment of the wye-level (see p. 596), except that in most instruments the screws for raising or lowering the standards or uprights are on the underside of the level-bar, and are to be turned with a screw-driver.

Remark. On some dumpy-levels no provision is made for raising or lowering the standards, in which case the order of adjustments is changed to that given below.

First adjustment. To make the axis of the bubble perpendicular to the vertical axis. Test and correction: Revolve the instrument 180° about its vertical axis, as in the third adjustment of the wye-level, but correct half the error by turning the capstan nuts at the end of the level-tube, and the rest by the thumb-screws of the leveling-head.

Second adjustment. To make the line of sight parallel to the axis of the bubble use the peg method as described for the first adjustment above, but correct the error by moving the cross-hairs instead of the level-tube. (See first method of correction, page 598.)

585. Centering the Eyepiece: An instrument may be in good adjustment and still have the intersection of the cross-hairs appear far out of the center of the field of view. This does not affect the accuracy of the work, although it does affect the seeing power of the telescope. The inverting eyepiece usually has its inner end held in place by a ring which can be moved like the cross-hair ring by means of four screws, until the intersection of the cross-hairs appears in the center of the field.

Practical suggestions. (1) In some instruments the screws have capstan-heads like those that move the cross-hair ring, but they are nearer the eye-end of the telescope. (See *E'E'* in photograph, p. 551.) In other instruments the screws are concealed under a collar, which may be easily unscrewed and slipped along the telescope. The screws can then be turned with a screw-driver. (2) Centering the eyepiece does not affect any of the other adjustments, but it is best to wait until they are completed before the centering is done. It is not often that the adjustment of the eyepiece is necessary; there is no provision for it on non-erecting eyepieces.

586. Adjustment of the Object-glass Slide: When an instrument leaves the maker's hands the object-glass slide should be perfectly straight, and its line of motion should be parallel to the axis of the telescope. No further adjustment of the object-glass slide should be necessary, at least for a long time. In many instruments no provision is made for this adjustment. In other instruments the rear end of the slide works through a ring which can be adjusted by four screws in the same way that the ring which holds the eye piece is moved (see *CC* in photograph, p. 551). It is necessary first to remove the bubble-tube from the telescope in order to get at the screw directly above the tube. The ring is moved until the test of focusing on a far point and a near point is satisfactory. (See pp. 586, 594.)

587. Adjustments of the Compass. The adjustments of the compass are four in number; they affect the following parts: I. Levels. II. Sights. III. Needle. IV. Pivot-point.

I. ADJUSTMENT OF THE LEVELS. *Object.* To make the axes of the level-bubbles perpendicular to the vertical axis.

Test and correction. Exactly the same as for the similar adjustment of the transit (p. 584), except that after bringing a bubble half-way back it is brought the rest of the way by turning the instrument on the ball-and-socket joint. On some compasses a leveling-head like that on transits is furnished; then the adjustment is exactly the same.

II. ADJUSTMENT OF THE SIGHTS. *Object. To bring the sights into a vertical plane.*

Test. Level up and sight at a suspended plumb-line, first through one of the sight vanes and then through the other, turning the instrument so that each sight vane in turn is nearer the plumb-line than the other. If the slit in either is not vertical the bottom of the vane must be refitted to the plate.

Correction. Either file off one side of the bottom of the sight vane or insert a piece of paper under the other side.

Remark. Ordinarily this adjustment should not be necessary. It is *not essential* that the plane of the sights should be exactly in the plane of the vertical axis.

III. ADJUSTMENT OF THE NEEDLE. *Object.* **To straighten the needle so that its two ends shall lie in the same vertical plane with its center.**

Test. Let the needle down on its pivot and remove the glass top; with a small splinter of wood bring the south end of the needle exactly opposite some prominent graduation of the circle, as the zero- or ninety-degree mark, and read the north end. Turn the needle on its pivot end for end, bring the north end to the graduation-mark on the circle, and read the south end. If the two readings do not agree the needle is not straight.

Correction. Remove the needle from its pivot and straighten it by bending it in the direction that will move the south end toward the original reading of the north end. The correction should be one half the difference of the two readings; but as this must be estimated, the needle should be replaced on the pivot and the test and correction repeated until the needle is straight.

Suggestions. (1) Instead of turning the needle on its pivot, the whole instrument may be turned if preferred to bring each end of the needle in turn to the same graduation-mark. (2) In addition to the above adjustment it may be necessary to bend the ends of the needle slightly up or down, so that they shall lie in the same plane as the horizontal circle—or, better still, a trifle above. If, however, this brings the ends above or below the plane of the pivot-point the ends of the needle are likely to be unsteady Continued resharpening of a pivot may bring its point much too low, when the only remedy is a new center-pin.

IV. ADJUSTMENT OF THE PIVOT-POINT. *Object.* To bring the pivot-point exactly in the center of the graduated circle.

Test. Read both ends of the needle in various positions. If for every position of the needle the readings for the two ends agree, the pivot is in the center; otherwise it must be centered.

Correction. Find roughly the position of the needle where the difference in the two readings is the greatest. Remove the needle and bend the pivot at right angles to this direction. Replace the needle and see if the readings of the two ends agree. Repeat the process until the readings agree for any position of the needle.

Suggestions. (1) To bend the pivot apply the little brass wrench, or the flat pliers usually furnished with the instrument, about one eighth of an inch below the top of the pivot. (2) This adjustment should be made after the needle has been straightened in III.

588. The Adjustments of the Plane-table are practically the same as some of those already given for the transit and the level; hence it is unnecessary to treat each one in detail. They may be summarized as follows:

I. THE LEVELS. This adjustment is similar to the second step in the second adjustment of the level (p. 595). The levels are placed near the center of the board and reversed, for the test, by taking them off and turning them end for end without moving the board. The bubble is brought half-way back by adjustment, and the rest of the way by leveling the board. The method is the same whether the levels are attached to the ruler of the alidade or are separate.

II. THE UPPER SURFACE OF THE BOARD should be perpendicular to the axis. Place the alidade on the board, bring the bubble under the telescope to the center turn the table through 180° without disturbing the alidade, and correct half the error by inserting washers between the board and the arms that hold it to the tripod-head. Turn the alidade on the board at right angles to its first position and repeat the test.

III. THE TELESCOPE. The line of sight should be perpendicular to the supporting axis, and the supporting axis should be parallel to the top of the table. The two adjustments corresponding to these two requirements are similar to the second and third adjustments of the transit. (See pp. 586-591.)

Remark. It is desirable though not essential to have the line of sight either in the plane of the edge of the ruler or parallel to it. This may be tested by establishing two points 20 ft. or so away, one in the line of sight of the telescope, the other in the line found by sighting along the edge of the ruler. If these lines of sight do not lie in the same vertical plane or in parallel planes, the telescope may be turned slightly by loosening the screws which attach the standard to the ruler. No error will be introduced if the above requirements are not fulfilled, provided the vertical planes through the lines of sight remain at a fixed angle with each other.

IV. THE TELESCOPE LEVEL. Same as Adjustment IV of the transit. (See p. 591.)

V. THE VERTICAL CIRCLE. Same as Adjustment V of the transit. (See p. 591.)

589. Adjustments of the Sextant. I. ADJUSTMENT OF THE INDEX-GLASS. *Object.* To make the index-glass perpendicular to the plane of the graduated arc.

Test. Hold the sextant with the arc away from the body and move the vernier to a point between the 20° and 40° marks. Hold the eye just above the plane of the arc and slightly to the right of the index-glass. Look obliquely into the right-hand side of the glass in such a way as to see a portion of the arc both directly and by reflection at the same time. If the direct and reflected portions do not appear to form a continuous curve *the index-glass* is not perpendicular to the plane of the arc.

Correction. Change the inclination of the glass by means of the screws at its base, or by whatever means have been provided on that particular instrument, until the above test is fulfilled. It may be necessary to insert thin paper under the base. If the reflected image is below the arc, the glass is leaning backward; if above, forward.

II. Adjustment of the horizon-glass. *Object.* To make the horizon-glass perpendicular to the plane of the graduated arc. This must be done after the index-glass has been adjusted.

Test. Point the telescope to any well-defined object and move the index-arm slowly back and forth over the zero of the graduated arc. The reflected image will be seen moving back and forth; if it passes exactly over the direct image the two mirrors are perpendicular to the plane of the arc, otherwise the horizon-glass should be adjusted.

Correction. Turn the screws on the back of the horizon-glass until the above test is fulfilled.

Suggestions. A star is the best object to sight at, although the sun will also answer the purpose. In case the latter is used it is well to make the two images of different colors by use of the glass-shades. A clear-cut line of some terrestrial object may be used—as, for example, a vertical edge of a tall chimney, half a mile or more away. In that case the vertical line should appear straight and unbroken.

III. Adjustment of telescope. *Object.* To make the line of sight parallel to the plane of the graduated arc.

Test. Place the sextant face upward on a table or some other firm and level support, point the telescope at some vertical surface about 20 ft. away. Place two objects of equal height on the extreme ends of the limb to serve as temporary sights. Sight across the tops of these objects and mark a point where the line of sight strikes the vertical surface. Near this point mark another point where the line of sight through the telescope strikes the same surface. The difference in elevation between these two points should equal the difference in elevation between the axis of the telescope and the line across the top of the two temporary sights, measured at the sextant; otherwise the telescope must be adjusted.

Correction. Tip the ring or collar that carries the telescope by means of the proper screws until the above test is fulfilled.

Suggestions. If the temporary sights are made of the same height as the telescope axis the two points on the vertical surface should coincide. With some instruments two peep-sights are furnished for this purpose. A discrepancy of ½ inch in 20 feet would cause a maximum error of only 1 second of arc.

IV. Index error. *Object.* To determine the reading of the arc when the direct and reflected image of an object coincide.

Test. Bring the direct and reflected image of a distant point into coincidence. If the vernier does not read zero the error is called the *index error.*

Correction. The error may be corrected by turning the horizon-glass around an axis perpendicular to the plane of the graduated arc. As this adjustment will not remain perfect it is better to determine the index error from time to time without attempting to adjust the glass, noting whether it should be added or subtracted from all angle readings, and then apply it as a correction for each reading when measuring angles.

Suggestions. If the vernier zero is to the left of the zero of the graduated arc the index error is *minus*—i.e., it must be subtracted from all readings; if to the right it is *plus.* Since this index error must be applied as a correction to every angle reading it should be determined with great care. For terrestrial measurements it will suffice to sight at some distant line. as the edge of a chimney. (See suggestion, second adjustment.) For astronomical observations the error should be determined with greater accuracy. For example, the direct and reflected images of the sun may be brought externally tangent to each other in each of the two possible positions. Call the reading to the right *minus,* the one to the left *plus,* and algebraically *divide by two;* the result is the index error with the proper sign. For greater accuracy, repeat the process at least two or three times and take the mean of all the results. In taking readings to the right of the zero, be careful to reverse mentally the numbering of the graduations on the vernier.

CHAPTER XLVII

THE CARE OF INSTRUMENTS.*

In the care of instruments it is more important to know how to avoid nnecessary wear and tear than it is to know how to make repairs, though he surveyor should be able to do both. The most important precautions o be taken in the care of instruments are suggested in this chapter. In ddition, directions are given for cleaning instruments, for repairing broken apes, for replacing broken cross-hairs, for stopping the fretting of slides nd centers, and for making such other minor repairs as do not require he services of a skilled instrument-maker.

590. Precautions. By taking proper precautions the vear and tear on instruments may be greatly reduced, and frequently permanent injury to some part of an instrument may e avoided. "*It must be remembered that there are many parts f an instrument which, if once impaired, cannot be restored to heir original efficiency.*"

A FEW DON'TS.

1. In taking an instrument out of its box do not lift it by he standards or supporting axis; place the hands under the lates or the leveling-base. There is no excuse for certain nakers' persisting in furnishing a box so constructed that it s impossible to lift the instrument out properly.

2. Do not leave an instrument unguarded in a street, road, r pasture, or in the close vicinity of blasting.

3. Do not expose an instrument needlessly to dust or dampess. Carry a waterproof hood for transits and levels.

4. Do not let the compass-needle swing needlessly; always ift it from its pivot before starting to carry the instrument.

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* In this chapter the author has quoted frequently from catalogs of nstrument-makers, as it is to be presumed that such men are well qualified to ive directions for the care of instruments. Extracts reproduced word for vord are placed in quotation-marks; but as it is impracticable to credit each uotation, this method is taken of acknowledging the author's indebtedness, specially to the firms of *C. L. Berger & Sons* and *Young & Sons*.

Every precaution should be taken to guard the pivot and keep it sharp.

5. Do not *force* screws or other movable parts of an instrument.

6. Do not continue to use slides or centers which are fretting. If an instrument has met with a fall, bending the centers, it should not be revolved until repaired, lest still further injury be done.

7. Do not allow oil or grease to remain on exposed parts, for it will gather dust.

8. Do not rub lenses with silk or muslin. Avoid rubbing them altogether; use a brush for removing dust.

9. Do not set an instrument on a smooth floor without proper precautions; the tripod-legs are apt to open out and to let the instrument fall.

10. Do not carry an instrument on the shoulder through a doorway or in any place where it is likely to get bumped.

11. Do not take instruments apart unnecessarily. "Even when fittings are perfect it often requires care and experience to place them together properly. A screw left loose or one tightened too hard may interfere with the correct working of the instrument."

12. Do not let a "high" level rod down on the run, or lean the rod against a tree, or leave it in any other position where it is likely to fall.

13. Do not pull on a steel tape when there is a kink in it, or jerk it needlessly, or step on it when it is on soft ground, or allow vehicles to run over it, or bend it into sharp corners. If a tape gets wet do not put it away without wiping it dry.

14. In using a plane-table do not start to carry it until the little compass-box and other accessories have been removed.

A FEW PRECAUTIONS.

1. In carrying an instrument set all clamps lightly to prevent needless wear, yet loose enough so that if the parts are bumped they will yield.

2. In carrying the transit or the level a long distance, it is better to put it in its box; but be careful that there is no looseness in the resting-blocks or in any of the parts of the instrument itself.

3. In packing an instrument for shipment it is best to fill in the hollow spaces with paper or excelsior, and to put the instrument-box in another box about an inch larger all around.

4. When a telescope is not in use keep the cap over the lens.

5. Keep the hands off the vertical circle and other exposed graduations to avoid tarnishing.

6. In case of rain when there is no waterproof bag at hand, turn the telescope object-end up with the cap over the lens to keep the water out.

7. After an instrument has been exposed to moisture, wipe it dry before putting it away.

8. "To protect an instrument from the effects of salt water, when used near the sea-coast, a fine film of watch-oil rubbed over the exposed parts will often prevent the appearance of oxide. To remove such oxide-spots as well as possible, apply some watch-oil and allow it to remain for a few hours, then rub dry with a soft piece of linen. To preserve the outer appearance of an instrument, never use anything for dusting except a fine camel's-hair brush. To remove water and dust spots, first use the camel's-hair brush, and then rub off with fine watch-oil and wipe dry; to let the oil remain would tend to accumulate dust on the instrument."

591. Steel Tapes. *Care.* Wipe tapes clean and dry after using. To remove rust, rub with oil and fine sand or emery. On the better class of tapes use a little mineral oil instead, as sand or emery is likely to efface the etchings. Some simple device for holding the tape is useful when one person does the scouring. (See *Engineering News*, March 9, 1899 and February 22, 1900.)

(*a*) RIVETING A BROKEN TAPE. One of the best devices on the market for mending broken steel tapes is an eyelet tool. This consists of a punch for cutting holes in the tape and a set which clinches or sets the eyelets used as rivets. A piece of scrap-tape an inch or two in length is needed to serve as a splice; if possible this should be of the same width as the broken tape, and with the same graduations. Lay one end of the tape on the splice, taking care to match the graduations if the tape is fully graduated. Clamping the two pieces together, punch a hole about half an inch back from the broken end and *set the eyelet or rivet as soon as the hole is punched.* Usually one additional rivet will be needed. If the tape is wide the two rivets may be set crosswise; if narrow they may be set tandem. Make the other broken end of the tape butt against the end already fastened to the splice and rivet it in the same manner. After riveting, cut away a portion of the original tape at the splice by filing a notch crosswise close to the rivets on each side of the joint; slip a knife under and break off the ends at the file-marks. Unless this is done the tape is apt to break again at the splice. In a similar manner the ends of the splice-piece may be cut off close to the last rivets. The splice should not be less than three fourths of an inch long. In mending a heavy tape the above method must be modified by punching one thickness at a time. Punch one piece, and then clamping it to the other punch the second piece through the holes already made in the first. For thick tapes solid copper rivets fastened with a hammer may be used in place of eyelets.

(*b*) SOLDERING A BROKEN TAPE. Another good method of mending a tape is to wrap a small strip of copper around the broken joint and to fasten it with soft solder. The outfit required consists of a small soldering-iron or a blowpipe, some flux and solder, small flat-nosed pliers, a small flat file and a piece of emery cloth.

Clean the broken ends with the emery cloth until the surfaces are bright, moisten with flux, melt a small piece of solder, spread it on both sides of the tape, and wipe the solder with a piece of cloth while the tape is still hot. Both of the broken ends having been tinned in this way, clean one side of the copper strip with the emery cloth and give it a similar coating. Bring the broken ends in perfect contact, put on the copper sleeve, slowly heat, and when the solder is hot enough to run clamp the joint with the pliers for a moment. When cool trim the copper sleeve, filing off any solder that may remain on the outside, and polish the joint with the emery cloth.

Suggestions. Flux may be made by putting zinc into muriatic acid, and when the bubbles cease to rise, adding all the sal-ammoniac that the acid will dissolve. Stick-flux, or prepared flux, such as electricians use, is more convenient to carry in the field. Resin is also used. (2) If the work has to be done in the field, as is often the case, the method may be modified as follows: Cut a strip of tin about ½ inch to ⅝ inch wide (a piece from an old tin can will answer the purpose), and of such a length that it will reach around the tape to be mended, and just about meet on the flat side—not the edge. Using one end of the tape as a "form," bend the strip into a sleeve, insert the broken ends of the tape until by measuring between graduation-marks they are known to be in perfect contact, clamp the sleeve tightly about the tape with the pliers, heat the joint, and put sufficient *flux* on to run under the sleeve. Hold the solder on until it has melted *and run under* and about the sleeve, then allow it to cool without movement of the ends of the tape. A number of sleeves may be made in advance; and these, together with solder, stick-flux, a candle for heating the tape, a small flat file, and a pair of pliers, form an outfit which can be carried in the pocket. Tapes can be mended in this manner in a few minutes and will stand all a man can pull. (3) Sleeves should not be more than say, ¾ inch wide. If the break is a long one use a piece of old tape and two sleeves. Too long a sleeve interferes with the pliability of the tape.

(*c*) EMERGENCY REPAIRS. There are several methods of mending a broken tape in the field when no outfit for riveting or soldering is at hand.

The stick-splice. A chain tape may be spliced temporarily as follows: Secure a round stick about 4 in. long and ½ in. in diameter, and split it lengthwise, making two half-round pieces. Across the flat side of one of these pieces and equidistant from the two ends cut two notches about ¼ in. apart, ⅛ in. deep, and at right angles to the axis of the stick. Bend ⅛ in. of each of the broken ends of the tape at right angles to fit the notches in the stick, taking care that when these ends are inserted in the notches the graduations shall be the proper distance apart. Complete the splice by placing the other half-round stick with its flat side against the tape to hold the ends in place, and binding the two halves together with stout string so that they are almost as they were before the stick was split. Trim each end of the stick to slope like a sharpened pencil, so that it will not catch in the brush. Such a splice, made in a few minutes, will frequently last several days, or until more permanent repairs can be made.

Rough riveting. Tapes may be roughly riveted as follows: Drive a darning-needle through a thick piece of wood, allowing each end to project. The needle, supported by the wood throughout most of its length, may then be used as a punch. The broken ends of the tape may be riveted to the splice-piece with large pins cut off and hammered down, or they may be laced together with fine wire; the lacing should be continued until the holes are filled with the wire, and then it should be smoothed and pressed down with pliers or with two blocks of wood. Tapping the wire with a hammer is likely to break the tape.

592. Lubricants. Watch-oil, vaseline, and rendered marrow are all used for lubricating different parts of surveying instruments. For most purposes watch-oil is the best. (See *Care of Centers*, p. 618, for the advantages and disadvantages of different lubricants.) The tendency is to use lubricants too freely. As a rule any part which has been oiled should be wiped off clean; enough oil will remain after an effort has been made to remove it. No part exposed to the dust should be greased. Before applying oil make sure that all dust or foreign matter has been removed from the part to be oiled.

593. To Clean Screws and Screw-holes. Screws may be washed in soap and water applied with a stiff toothbrush, then oiled and wiped clean. The inside of nuts and other threaded holes may be cleaned by screwing through the hole a piece of soft wood with two sides thinned down, applying a little oil and removing it in the same manner. Unless the oil or grease is almost wholly removed the screw-threads are likely to be injured by dust adhering to the screw.

594. Verniers and Graduated Arcs. The first rule in cleaning graduated arcs is to avoid rubbing the edge of the graduations. Every precaution should be taken to protect the edges, for if they become worn or injured the value of the entire instrument is greatly lessened. "To remove dirt and oxide that may have accumulated on the surface of a solid silver graduation, apply some fine watch-oil and allow it to remain for a few hours; take a soft piece of linen and rub lightly until dry, but without touching the edge of the graduation. If after cleaning the solid silver surface should show alternately brighter spots, which would interfere somewhat with the accurate reading of the graduation, barely moisten the finger with vaseline and apply the same to the surface; then wipe the finger dry and lightly rub it once or twice around the graduation. Avoid touching the edges as much as possible. Such cleaning, however, must be resorted to only when absolutely necessary, and then only with the greatest care, as it is apt to reduce the minuteness of the graduation and to spoil its fine appearance. If after such cleaning dirt and grease have accumulated on the inner edge of the graduation and verniers, gently wipe clean before restoring the vernier-plate to place." Before applying oil or vaseline to graduations brush all dust from the surface with a camel's-hair brush. Scouring the surface with any form of silver polish may seriously injure the graduations.

595. Compass-needles. *To balance the needle.* If the needle is only a trifle out do not meddle with it, as there is danger of doing more harm than good; but if the compass needle requires to be balanced, proceed as follows: Remove the glass cover by unscrewing the ring which holds it, or in some instruments, by gently prying off the ring with a knife where the two ends come together. Raise the needle off its pivot by the lifter and remove it with a pair of tweezers. Shift the weight-coil slightly and replace the needle on the lifter, then use the latter to lower it to place. If the needle is removed directly from the pivot or replaced without using the lifter, the delicate pivot-point is apt to be injured. It is not always necessary to remove the compass-glass entirely. Frequently, by means of beeswax slightly softened, the glass may be lifted (after the ring has been removed) just enough to take out the needle.

To straighten the needle (See page 603.)

To remagnetize the needle. This should not often be necessary. It may be done as explained on page 295.

596. Level Bubbles and Tubes. It frequently happens that the glass tube of a spirit-level becomes loose in its brass tube, or is broken and has to be replaced. Extra tubes are often provided with the instrument. "Upon finding that the adjustment of a spirit-level in an even temperature is not as stable as desirable, the level fastenings, tube, screws, etc., should be examined, to see if any of them are loose. If the trouble is in the screws, tighten them, but if the spirit-level can be shifted in its tube by a touch of the finger, take it apart; soften the plaster of Paris in water, and remove it with a sharp-pointed stick of wood. Cautiously move the spirit-level with your finger, at first only a trifle to and fro, increasing the length of stroke little by little, until it can be safely taken out without breaking;—clean thoroughly. Cut pieces of white paper, of the width of the radius of the tube, and somewhat shorter than the length of the spirit-level, but longer than the opening in the brass tube, and insert these in sufficient quantity at the bottom of the brass tube, to fill up the space intervening between the glass and the brass tube. The uppermost layer of paper should, however, be so wide, as to envelop the spirit-level up to the opening in the brass tube. Now insert the spirit-level, taking care not to touch the glass ends that are sealed, and place the division or other marks, indicating where the level has been ground to a true curvature, uppermost in the brass tube. The level must be pushed in with sufficient friction to prevent slipping in the tube, yet not so tight as to cause a crack at a subsequent low temperature, as brass will contract more than glass. No part of the spirit-level should touch any part of the metal tube. Now prepare some plaster of Paris with water, of the consistency of paste, and pour in at each end enough to fill up the space between the end-pieces and the glass, stirring it sufficiently to make a perfect contact by it and the glass and the brass, but leaving the spirit-level ends exposed. Now put the level together and adjust as described elsewhere."

597. Telescope. (*a*) CARE OF LENSES. "The lenses of a telescope should not be cleaned too often. Too frequent wipings will scratch the glass and injure the polish, which is more injurious than a little speck of dirt. When it becomes necessary to clean the glass, take a soft, dry piece of chamois-skin or an old piece of linen which by repeated washing has become soft. If the glass is very dirty use a little alcohol, but be careful not to touch the mounting of the lens, as the alcohol dissolves the lacquer. *Dirt on the eyepiece especially on the field-lens,* is far more objectionable than on the objective; hence the former requires more frequent cleaning. Small scratches and bubbles in the objective have no seriously injurious effect, as they only take up a very small portion of light."* Sometimes a film settles between the crown and flint glasses of the objective. If this film is simply moisture it can be evaporated usually by placing the telescope in the sun or in a warm room some distance from a stove. Sometimes it is advisable to remove the eyepiece and to let the telescope stand with a cloth over the open end, in order that the moisture on the inside may evaporate more rapidly. If, however, the haziness is caused by a network of small cracks in the cement between the two glasses, or if it cannot be removed by evaporation, the telescope should be sent to the maker or to an expert. Do not unscrew the lens of the objective if it can be avoided. Small specks of dust or lint should be brushed from the glass with a camel's-hair brush. The glass next to the eye, especially in high powers, frequently becomes dimmed from moisture of the eyelash. It should seldom be necessary to wipe the inside of glasses that are protected; but if the objects seem dim and the outside surfaces of the lenses seem clean, remove the eye piece and look through it. If it is not clear, examine the inner end; very likely the surface of the lens most remote from the eye needs cleaning. While the eyepiece is out look through the telescope to see if the object-glass is

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(*b*) CARE OF THE FOCUSING SLIDES. Both the eyepiece and the objective should move freely for focusing. If dust or grit causes either to fret, deep scratches are likely to be cut in the soft metal; hence the slide should be attended to as soon as possible after it begins to fret. "*Once commencing to fret it grows worse rapidly, and oftentimes is then beyond repairing.* Never use emery or emery-paper on slides as this will cause serious trouble afterward. After a thorough cleaning of the slide and tube (taking care not to break the cross-wires), endeavor to smooth carefully the injured parts with the back of a pen-knife, and apply barely enough tallow to grease the surface of the injured part. If this does not remove the trouble, a little scraping of the roughened parts on the slide, and, if accessible, on the inside of the tube, may become necessary; then apply a mere trifle of finely powdered pumice-stone moistened with oil. Replace the slide and grind a little by moving it in and out; *clean thoroughly*, and with a piece of charcoal moistened with oil smooth the parts thus ground on the slide. This process of grinding is a most precarious operation, and generally requires the hand of a skillful workman; it should be resorted to only in case of the utmost necessity. Whenever permissible, recourse should be had to a maker. These remarks apply equally to the centers."

"To prevent the focusing slide from fretting, which is usually due to the rush of air carrying in dust and grit when the slide is being run out and is causing momentarily a rarefied space, wrap a piece of chamois-skin over the barrel in the shape of a tubular form and fasten by means of rubber bands or by sewing. In an emergency fine watch-oil may be used to grease the slide should it continue to fret, until the instrument can be sent to the maker. In case of rain during non-use, place the telescope vertical, object end up, and no water can enter the telescope."

"If the focusing slide seems to work too hard, everything else being right, it is generally caused by the lubricant on the pinion hardening in cold weather, and the same cause may also make the focusing slide work too freely in hot weather by softening, i.e., the slide will not stay in place when in a vertical position. If the slide moves too freely it should be tightened by running out the slide to its full length, then applying a screw-driver to the screw on top of the focusing screw and turning a very small part of a turn until the required friction is obtained. If the slide works too tightly run in the slide, unscrew the top screw one turn, gently tap it by the screw-driver handle to release it, and then tighten to the required stiffness."

"A great deal of annoyance is caused to the engineer if the eye-piece or the object-slide of the telescope moves too freely in its tube, requiring a refocusing of the cross-wires and object at every revolution of the telescope in altitude. If the eye-piece can be retained in its socket, with sufficient friction to keep it focused to the cross-wires, no matter how much it may wabble otherwise, this imperfection (in old instruments) will not lead to any inaccuracy; but if there is not sufficient friction to keep it focused to the wires, a little rendered tallow or marrow applied to its bearing-surfaces in most cases will remedy this evil. Wabbling in the object-slide, however, leading to inaccuracy of collimation, or back-lash in its rack and pinion motion, can be remedied only by a maker; but if the object-slide moves too freely in and out of its tube only, this may be remedied by applying a little tallow to the bearing-parts of the rack and pinion, or by tightening the screw in the pinion-head. If not entirely successful, a thin disk made of parchment, or a thin leather-washer, both greased with tallow and inserted between the flanges of the pinion-head and its socket, will insure the desired result."

Whenever it becomes necessary to remove the object-glass slide, a test should be made for the line of collimation after it is replaced. (See p. 602.)

(*c*) REPLACING BROKEN CROSS-HAIRS. The whole process of replacing broken cross-hairs is very easy, and can be carried out in less time almost than is required to explain it. (1) Take the cross-hair ring out of the telescope and clean it. The fine scratches which indicate where the cross-hairs are to go should be plainly visible after the old shellac and other foreign matter have been removed from the surface. Lay the ring on a flat surface, marked side uppermost. (See p. 551.) (2) Procure a clean, fine, opaque spider-web and stretch it across the ring so that it coincides with two of the opposite scratches. Fasten one end with a drop of shellac, wait for this to harden, then, making sure that the hair is stretched tight, fasten the other hair in a similar manner. Allow the shellac to harden for several minutes, cut off the two ends of the web, and then proceed in *the same manner* to replace the other web if that too is broken.

Suggestions. (1) In many telescopes it is necessary to remove the eyepiece ring in order to take out the cross-hair ring. (2) In removing the cross-hair ring proceed as follows: Take out first the two *side* capstan screws that hold the ring in place, and *loosen slightly* the other two screws. Turn the ring at right angles to its usual position so that one of the holes from which a screw has been removed is toward the eye-end of the telescope. Sharpen a piece of soft wood to fit the hole, and screw it in lightly until it passes through both holes. Remove the top and bottom capstan screws and take the ring out on the end of the stick. Leave the stick in the ring to serve as a handle while replacing the cross-hairs, and then use it afterward in putting the ring back in the telescope. (3) There are two ways of procuring spider-webs—from the spider's nest or cocoon and from the spider itself. "The best spider-threads are those of which the spider makes its nest. These nests are yellowish brown balls, which may be found hanging on shrubs, etc., in the late fall or early winter. The nest should be torn open and the eggs removed; if this is not done the young spiders when hatched will eat the threads. The fibers next to the eggs are to be preferred on account of their fineness and darker color. One or two cocoons may be kept on hand, and if desired they may be wrapped in a bit of paper and carried in the pocket, where they are always ready." From the spider's cocoon select two or three webs, each about two inches long and of the same appearance. Attach each end of these webs to a bit of wood or wax to act as weights, and immerse them in water five or ten minutes. Remove one web from the water, and very gently pass it between the fore-finger and thumb nails, holding it vertically to remove any particles of moisture or dirt. Then stretch it across the ring as already explained. The little weights should be about as heavy as the hair will support in order to stretch it tight, and before dropping the shellac on either end examine the hair with a magnifying-glass to see if it exactly coincides with the scratch; if it does not, move it gently with a knife-point. If the ring is placed nearly on a level with the eye and between it and the source of light (as a window), the spider-web will glisten and become plainly visible; otherwise it is sometimes difficult to see it. (4) When a cocoon cannot be procured, a spider can usually be found. Cut a forked stick five or six inches long, get the spider on the end of one of the prongs and gently shake him off. He will usually begin to spin a web, and, as he spins, wind the web around the fork in such a way that no two strands will be close together. If the fork is pressed together *a very little* during the winding it will stretch the webs when released. When one strand is laid across the ring the forked stick will act as a weight to stretch it tight.

(*d*) To REMOVE DUST FROM CROSS-HAIRS. Take out the eyepiece or object-glass (or both if necessary) and blow gently through the tube. Cover up both ends and wait a few minutes before putting back the eyepiece or object-glass. If the object-glass is removed, a test should be made for the line of collimation (see p. 602.) Unless the small particles of dust are on such a part of the web as to interfere with its use it is preferable to allow them to remain.

598. Care of Tripods. "Legs of tripods, if fitting too loose or too tight, and dull shoes are frequent sources of falls. The test of the proper degree of tightness of the legs is this, that if the leg is raised to a horizontal position and left free, it should gradually sink to the ground. If it drops abruptly it is too loose; if it does not sink it is too tight." The nuts will need adjustment after a period of dry or damp weather or after the tripod has been kept in the dry atmosphere of a room. The steel shoes will loosen from wear and tear unless the screws are tightened from time to time. Keep them somewhat sharp, for the greater the hold on the ground and the more carefully the screws are tightened, the steadier the instrument. When the tripod becomes wet wipe dry and renew the varnish whenever necessary.

599. Care of Centers, Spindles, and Sockets. These should be cleaned and oiled occasionally, the oil being wiped off with a soft cloth or chamois-skin. The outer spindle of a transit will need more attention than the inner spindle, and the two plates should not be taken apart unless it is necessary. So long as centers work freely it is best not to disturb them.

"The centers of a transit should always be lubricated with *fine watch-oil only,* and after a careful cleaning; never apply fresh oil before thoroughly wiping off old grit and oil. Rendered marrow is a most excellent lubricant for instruments made of brass and the many kindred alloys of copper and tin. In the varying climes of our northern latitudes this lubricant becomes rigid in cold weather, and an instrument so treated will often become unmanageable in the field. Its application, particularly to the centers of a transit, is therefore restricted to the warmer zones. The use of watch-oil for the finer parts of an instrument, involving freedom of motion, is *imperative in our latitudes.*"

"Many parts of an instrument, especially those whose metal compositions are closely related to each other, may sometimes cause trouble if simply oiled. If they begin to fret and grind, but are otherwise free from grit, etc., the judicious application of a little marrow may prove very beneficial, but it should be cleaned off again as much as possible. The rack and pinion motion and the telescope clamp should always be greased with marrow, but the clamp-, tangent-, and leveling-screws should receive as little of it as possible in the Northern States."

"Vaseline, not having as great a tendency to rigidity under similar circumstances, may prove an excellent substitute for marrow, and may often be applied to level-centers, where watch-oil would not give the necessary rigidity in the use of the more ordinary instruments, but it must be renewed quite often. In the finer class of leveling instruments, the centers should be lubricated with oil only, as in transits."

Sockets may be cleaned with a stick of about the same taper, *around which* wash-leather, soaked in oil. has been wrapped, the final cleaning being done with fresh pieces of the leather *without* the oil.

(*a*) "*Fretting of centers* should be treated in the same way as fretting of the slide to the telescope. If unable to stop it, temporary relief may be found on placing between the shoulders of the centers a washer of thin paper or thin card. There will then be a shake in the center, but this is a lesser evil than the entire loss of the use of the instrument."

APPENDIX I

DETERMINATION OF A MERIDIAN BY SOLAR OBSERVATION

In this appendix three methods of determining a meridian are explained viz.: (1) Method of *single altitude* by direct observation on the sun. (2) Method involving the use of the *solar attachment*. (3) Method of *equal altitudes* of the sun or of a star. In each case the method of procedure is given in detail, so that it may be easily followed by any one who is accustomed to the use of surveying instruments and who has a knowledge of spherical trigonometry. All three methods, however, will be understood better if studied in connection with a course in field astronomy. On page 632 two common and very simple methods of determining latitudes are outlined.

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600. The Astronomical Triangle. When the sun is the only heavenly body observed, the celestial sphere may be considered to have a radius equal in length to the distance from the earth to the sun. If the axis of the earth is produced indefinitely it will intersect the celestial sphere in a point called *the celestial pole* represented by P in Fig. 600. If a line from

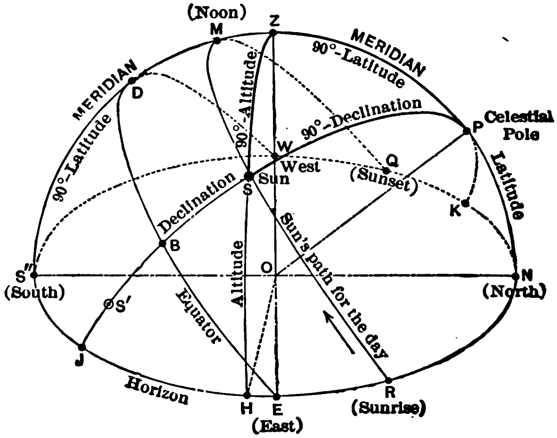


FIG. 600.

the center of the earth through any point on its surface is produced indefinitely it will pierce the celestial sphere in the *zenith* for that point, and hence observers at different points will have different zeniths, but the celestial pole is the same for all. If in Fig. 600, Z is the zenith for an observer at O then the circle $S''ENW$ is the *horizon.* The arc $EBDW$ represents the *celestial equator,* cut from the celestial sphere by a plane passed through the equator of the earth. In the northern hemisphere the sun is always north of the equator (between it and the pole) from March 21 to September 21, and always south of it between September 21 and March 21. The angular distance from the equator to the sun at any given moment is the sun's *declination for that moment, positive if north, negative if south.* Thus if the sun is at S in Fig. 600, the declination north (or positive) is the arc BS; if the sun were at S' the declination south (or negative) is BS'. The great circle $S''ZPN$, etc., is the meridian for the point on the earth's surface for which Z is the zenith. For any given day the sun appears to move in a circle which is approximately parallel to the equator. Thus for the particular day represented in the figure the sun rose at R is now at S, at noon it will be at M, and will set at Q. (Suppose that the day is in May. Will the apparent path of the sun on the following day be nearer or farther from the celestial equator? Does the apparent path of the sun ever coincide approximately with the celestial equator?)

Remark. It is important to fix in mind the algebraic signs corresponding to north and south declinations, viz., north +, south −.

The spherical triangle ZPS is called the *astronomical triangle.* For any given point on the earth's surface the side ZP is always the same, but the other two sides are always changing, ZS depending upon the time of day (or altitude of sun) and PS on the time of year and day (or declination of sun).

$$ZP = 90^\circ - \text{Latitude};$$
$$ZS = 90^\circ - \text{Altitude};$$
$$PS = 90^\circ - \text{Declination}.$$

The altitude HS can be measured, the declination BS can be ascertained from the Nautical Almanac, and if the latitude PN of the place of observation is known the astronomical triangle can be solved for the angle SZP. This angle is the angular distance of the sun from the meridian at the time of the observation; hence if a transit is at O and is pointed at the sun, the angular distance of the line of sight from the north can be found, for it is equal to NOH, equal to the computed angle SZP. When this angular distance has been determined it is a simple matter to convert it into bearing or azimuth. (See p. 378) The line of sight to the sun may now be used as a reference line for calculating the bearing of other lines, or, if desired, a meridian may be established by turning off the bearing (or azimuth) right or left as the case may be.

It is evident that the astronomical triangle can be used to determine other quantities. For example, the three sides being known as above, the angle ZPS (called the *hour angle*) can be computed; this is the angular distance of the sun from the meridian and is easily converted into time of day. From this the longitude can be found by comparing with Greenwich time. Likewise if the time of observation (hour angle ZPS) and the sun's declination are known and the altitude is measured, the side ZP may be computed, and hence the latitude PN of the place of observation ascertained.

Question. What arc in Fig. 600 corresponds to the time of day?

601. The Sun's Declination is continually changing at rates varying from about zero seconds per hour on June 22 and December 22, to almost one minute of arc per hour on March 22 and September 22. In two of the methods discussed in this appendix the declination is required at the time of the observation. In the *American Ephemeris* and *Nautical Almanac*, published by the Bureau of Equipment, U. S. Navy Department, the apparent declination of the sun is given for every day in the year at the instant of Greenwich Mean Noon. The rate of change or difference for one hour is also given, so that if the number of hours that have elapsed from Greenwich Mean Noon to the time of observation is known, the change in declination is easily computed and applied as a correction to the declination given in the almanac.

(a) *Standard time.* In the United States watches are usually set to keep "standard time." There are four time belts. The *eastern* belt extends from the Atlantic Ocean to an irregular line drawn from Detroit, Mich., to Charleston, S. C.; the *central* belt from the last-named line to an irregular line drawn from Bismarck, N. D., to the mouth of the Rio Grande; the *mountain* belt from the last-named line to the western boundary of Montana, Idaho, Utah, and Arizona; the *western* belt from the last-named line to the Pacific coast. The difference in time between adjoining sections *is one hour. The* time in the *eastern* belt is that of the 75th meridian, i.e., it is noon (standard time) in this belt 5 hours after it is noon at Greenwich; in the *central* belt the time is that of the 90th meridian, or 6 hours slow; in the *mountain* belt the time is that of the 105th, or 7 hours slow; in the *western* belt the time is that of the 120th meridian, or 8 hours slow. The *true local* time at any place will be faster or slower than standard (or watch) time as the place is east or west of the time meridian. Thus the true local time at Boston, Mass., is about 16 minutes faster than standard time, while at Buffalo, N. Y., it is about 16 minutes slower, the 75th meridian being approximately half-way between those two cities. Local and standard time nearly agree at Denver, Colo., as Denver is almost on the 105th meridian.

(*b*) *To look up the declination.* (1) Add to the standard (or watch-time) of the observation 5, 6, 7, or 8 hours, according to the time belt in which the place of observation is located. The result is the Greenwich time of observation. (Since observations in the U. S. should not be taken before 8 A.M., the Greenwich time of observation will be at least an hour past noon.) (2) Look up the sun's apparent declination at Greenwich Mean Noon for the month and day of the observation. (3) To this declination add *algebraically* a correction for the change in declination between Greenwich Mean Noon and the Greenwich time of observation. This correction is found by multiplying the difference for one hour given in the table by the Greenwich time (in hours) of the observation.

Illustration. The time of an observation at New Haven, Conn., was, according to the watch, 9.30 A.M. on May 20, 1907, hence the Greenwich time was 2.30 P.M. on the same day. The sun's apparent declination as given in the almanac for Greenwich Mean Noon on May 20 is $+19^\circ\ 47'\ 38.''1$ and the change per hour is $+32.''05$, hence the declination at the time of the observation or 2.30 P.M. Greenwich time was $(2\frac{1}{2} \times 32.05) + 19^\circ\ 47'\ 38.''1 = +19^\circ\ 48'\ 58.''2$.

Illustration. The time of an observation at Chicago, Ill., was 2.30 P.M., Oct. 15, 1907, hence the Greenwich time was 8.30 P.M.

The sun's apparent declination for Greenwich Mean Noon Oct. 15 was $-8^\circ\ 11'\ 29.5''$, and the change per hour $-55.83''$, hence the declination at the time of the observation (8.30 P.M. Greenwich time) was $(-55''.83 \times 8.5) + (-8^\circ\ 11'\ 29.5'') = -8^\circ\ 19'\ 24.1''$.

602. Refraction. On account of refraction the sun appears to be higher than it really is. Hence all vertical angles found by sighting at the sun should be reduced by *subtracting* the correction for refraction. It will be seen from the following table that the nearer the sun is to the horizon the greater the correction for refraction. Below say 20 or 30° the correction for refraction is very uncertain, and hence any observations depending principally upon a single altitude of the sun should be taken only after the sun is from 20 to 30° above the horizon. The correction for refraction varies with the temperature, height of barometer, etc. The following mean values for a temperature of 50° F. and barometer reading of 29.9 inches are taken from Hayford's Geodetic Astronomy.

MEAN REFRACTION CORRECTIONS.

Altitude.	Correction.	Altitude.	Correction.	Altitude.	Correction.
0°	34′ 08″	16°	3′ 20″	40°	1′ 09″
5°	9′ 52″	17°	3′ 08″	45°	0′ 58″
10°	5′ 19″	18°	2′ 57″	50°	0′ 49″
11°	4′ 51″	19°	2′ 48″	55°	0′ 40″
12°	4′ 27″	20°	2′ 39″	60°	0′ 34″
13°	4′ 07″	25°	2′ 04″	70°	0′ 21″
14°	3′ 49″	30°	1′ 41″	80°	0′ 10″
15°	3′ 34″	35°	1′ 23″	90°	0′ 0″

603. Determination of the Meridian by the Sun's Altitude. This method may be divided into two parts: (1) The *observation* or the measurement of the sun's distance above the horizon. (2) The *computation* or the solution of the spherical triangle to find the angle SZP (see p. 620).

(*a*) METHOD OF PROCEDURE FOR THE OBSERVATION. (1) Set up the transit over some point M, and with verniers set at zero backsight on some point N. The line MN may be any convenient line, the object of the observation being to find the true azimuth of some line of reference, thus establishing indirectly the direction of a true meridian.

(2) Loosen the upper clamp and foresight on the sun, bringing its image tangent to the cross-hairs in the lower left-hand quadrant as shown in Fig. 603. Read and record the horizontal and vertical angles and note the time of the observation.

(3) Loosen the upper clamp, plunge the telescope and again foresight on the sun, but this time bring the image tangent to the cross-hairs in the upper right-hand quadrant as shown in Fig. 603(*a*). Read and record the horizontal and vertical angles, and note the time of the observation.

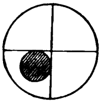


FIG. 603.

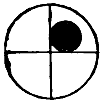


FIG. 603 *a*.

The mean horizontal angle, the mean vertical angle, and the mean time of observation as found from the results obtained in steps (1) and (2) will be used in computation as explained farther on.

Practical suggestions. (1) If observations are taken too early in the morning (before the sun reaches an altitude of at least 20 to 30°) the correction for refraction will be large and uncertain, while if they are taken too near noon the altitude of the sun is changing too slowly and the astronomical triangle becomes poorly proportioned for definite results. Hence the best time of day for observations is from 8 to 10 A.M. or from 2 to 4 P.M.; they should never be taken within an hour of noon. (2) In determining the meridian for any survey it is well to set up over a regular station and backsight on some other distant station, thus making the reference line *MN* coincide with one of the main lines of the survey. (3) In setting up, level the instrument with great care, using the level under the telescope for the final test in at least two positions at right angles to each other. Of course, the instrument should be in good adjustment. If the vernier of the vertical circle is not adjustable do not forget to record the amount and *sign* of the index error (see p. 98). (4) The object in sighting at the sun twice, once with the telescope normal and once with it reversed, is to eliminate instrumental errors. The object in bringing the cross-hairs tangent to the sun's image first in one quadrant and then in the opposite quadrant is to avoid the error which might occur in attempting to sight directly at the sun's center as judged by the eye. Of course the time between the two observations should be as short as possible, yet there is no need of undue haste. No appreciable error will occur if the pointings are not more than, say, two or three minutes apart. (5) As a further precaution both the *A* and *B* verniers on the limb may be read to eliminate errors of eccentricity, as is done in triangulation. (See p. 195). Likewise if there are two verniers on the vertical circle the two readings may be noted. (6) Prismatic eyepieces with colored shades are furnished with transits for use in solar observations. If no such eyepiece is at hand and the telescope has an erecting eyepiece, proceed as follows: Point the telescope approximately at the sun, hold a white card three or four inches behind the eyepiece, and draw the latter out until the image of the sun and the cross-hairs are both sharply focused on the card. The image may then be brought tangent to the wires almost as accurately as if the observer were looking through the telescope. If, however, the sun is high, the limb of the transit may interfere with holding the card in this manner. If the eyepiece is non-erecting the card method cannot be used, and hence a prismatic eyepiece is essential. (7) The maximum error in determining an azimuth by the altitude of the sun should not exceed three minutes, and under favorable conditions it should not exceed one minute. By taking several sets of observations both morning and afternoon the error can be reduced still more.

(*b*) MODIFIED METHOD. If the transit does not have a vertical circle, or if for any other reason it is not feasible to take two sights, direct and indirect, proceed as before, omitting the second sight. The altitude as observed in (1) must be corrected for the sun's semi-diameter, i.e., subtract 16′ of arc if the horizontal hair was made tangent to the upper edge of the sun. The computed azimuth must then be corrected by the quantity 16′ × secant of altitude, i.e., sun's semi-diameter divided by cosine of altitude.

Remark. The angle subtended by the sun's semi-diameter varies from 15′ 45″ about July 1, to 16′ 18″ about January 1.

(*c*) METHOD OF PROCEDURE FOR COMPUTATIONS. (1) Find the mean value of the observed altitudes. Look up in the table on page 624 the correction for refraction which corresponds to the mean altitude and subtract it from the mean altitude. Correct the result for the index error if there is any such error. (See suggestion (3), p. 625). Call the final corrected mean altitude .

Remark. If the highest accuracy is desired the altitude should be corrected also for parallax, i.e., the angle between a line from the sun to the center of the earth and a line from the sun to the point on the earth's surface where the observation is made. As this correction never exceeds 9 seconds of arc it may be ignored in observations made with transits reading to minutes.

(2) Find the sun's declination for the day and hour of the observation as explained on page 623.

(3) Subtract the final corrected declination of the sun from 90°, thus getting the *polar distance* p of the sun at the time of the observation.

(4) The latitude, the polar distance, and the corrected mean altitude being known, the angle Z of the spherical triangle can be found by spherical trigonometry, using any one of several formulas. Either of the following formulas is recommended:

h = corrected mean altitude; p = polar distance of the sun; L = latitude of the observer and $S = \frac{1}{2}(h+L+p)$.

$$\tan \tfrac{1}{2}Z = \sqrt{\frac{\sin (S-L) \sin (S-h)}{\cos S \cos (S-p)}}. \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (1)$$

Another formula:

$$\cos \tfrac{1}{2}Z = \sqrt{\frac{\cos S \cos (S-p)}{\cos L \cos h}}. \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (2)$$

(5) The angle Z found from either of the above formulas is the angular distance of the sun east or west of the meridian, or it is equal to the *angular distance* of the line of sight to the center of the sun measured from the NORTH point. For example, in Fig. 600, p. 620, the angle $Z = SZP$ is measured by the arc NH equal to the angle NOH, i.e., the *horizontal* angle that a line of sight from the place of observation O to the sun S makes with a north and south line ON. This angular distance $Z = NOH$ may easily be converted into azimuth or bearing as explained on page 378.

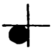
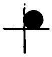
Remark. In astronomical work azimuths are measured from the south, and hence the left-hand members of equations (1) and (2) are frequently given as *cot* $\frac{1}{2}Z$ and *sin* $\frac{1}{2}Z$ respectively. In that case Z is equal to the angular distance of the sun measured from the *south*.

Questions. Assume azimuths to be measured clockwise from the north and the value of Z to be found from formulas (1) and (2). (1) If the altitude of the sun is found from a morning observation is the corresponding value of Z equal to the azimuth of the line of sight to the sun? (2) If the alti-

tude is found from an afternoon observation is Z equal to the azimuth? Assuming azimuths to be measured clockwise from the south and Z to be found from the cotangent or sine instead of from the tangent or cosine, answer the same questions (1) and (2).

(*d*) EXAMPLE ILLUSTRATING SINGLE ALTITUDE METHOD.

Record of Observations, Feb. 21, 1907, New Haven, Conn.

Sun.	Telescope.	Horizontal Angles.		Vertical Angles.	Time.
		Vernier A.	Vernier B.		
	Nor.	38° 07′ 40″	38° 08′ 20″	22° 34′ 30″	8 h. 57 m. 30 s.
	Inv.	38° 33′ 50″	38° 34′ 10″	22° 36′ 0″	9 h. 02 m. 30 s.
	Mean	38° 20′ 45″	38° 21′ 15″	22° 35′ 15″	9 h. 0 m. 0 s.

COMPUTATION

2 h. 0 m. 0 s. = (9–0–0) + (5–0–0) = Greenwich mean time of observation.
− 10° 52′ 0″ = Apparent declination at Greenwich mean noon.
+1′ 48″ = +54″ × 2 = correction for 2 hours.

− 10° 50′ 12″ = Apparent declination at time of observation.
22° 33′ 0″ = h = 22° 35′ 15″ − 2′ 15″ (ref.) = corrected altitude.
41° 18′ 36″ = L = Latitude of place of observation.
100° 50′ 12″ = p = [90° − (− 10° 50′ 12″) = polar distance.

164° 41′ 48″ = $2S$. I.
82° 20′ 54″ = S co-log cos S = 0.875658
41° 02′ 18″ = $S-L$ log sin $S-L$ = 9.817277
59° 47′ 54″ = $S-h$ log sin $S-h$ = 9.936645
− 18° 29′ 18″ = $S-p$ co-log cos $S-p$ = 0.023014

2|0.652594
64° 44′ 40″ = $\frac{1}{2}Z$ log tan $\frac{1}{2}Z$ = 0.326297
129° 29′ 20″ = Z = azimuth of sun from the north.
− 38° 21′ 0″ = Angle between sun and MN.

91° 08′ 20″ = Azimuth of MN from the north.

604. The Solar Attachment, frequently used in connection with an engineer's transit, is a device for determining a true meridian by an observation on the sun. Its use is based on the same general principles involved in the method of the preceding article, except that instead of solving the astronomical triangle by spherical trigonometry the instrument is made to solve it graphically, so that at the end of the observation the line of sight through the transit telescope lies in the true meridian.

Two of the forms of solar attachments in common use are explained below; all forms are alike in principle.

(*a*) THE BURT SOLAR ATTACHMENT. The solar attachment shown in Fig. 604 (*a*) is essentially the solar apparatus of Burt (see p. 576) placed upon the cross-bar of an ordinary transit. The principal parts are: (1) The *arm AB*, which has a small lens at *A* and a small silver disk at *B*; (2) the *polar axis* and (3) the *declination arc* marked in the cut; (4) the *hour circle* marked with Roman numerals. The little framework carrying the arm *AB* and the *declination* arc is free to revolve about the polar axis. The observation on the sun is made by bringing the image of the sun formed by the lens into a square ruled on the silver disk. A shutter at *A* is moved over the lens when the sun is very bright, otherwise it is difficult to tell when the image is exactly centered in the square; when the sun is dull the shutter is moved back, leaving the clear lens. When the declination is south (sun below the equator) the arm *AB* is reversed or turned end for end from the position shown in the cut; for this position there is a lens at *B* and a silver disk at *A*.

Attention is called to the following facts:*

1. If the telescope is pointed north and depressed until the reading on the vertical circle is equal to the co-latitude of the place where the transit stands, the polar axis will be parallel to the axis of the earth, and may be said to point to the celestial pole.

2. If when the telescope is in the above position the line *AB* were made parallel to the telescope it could be directed to the sun by merely turning the arm about the polar axis, *provided the sun were in the celestial equator.* The sun, however, is in this equator only twice during the year. Suppose that for a given day its declination is 17° north, i.e., it may be considered to move in a circle approximately parallel to the equator but 17° north of it. (See p. 620.) Then if the end *A* is raised until the declination arc reaches 17°, as shown in the engraving, the line *AB* could be directed approximately to the sun at any time during the day by merely revolving the arm about the polar axis, *provided the polar axis is kept stationary and pointing to the pole.* If the sun's declination were 17° south the only difference would be that the line from *B* to *A* should be directed

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* *Written for observations in the northern hemisphere.*

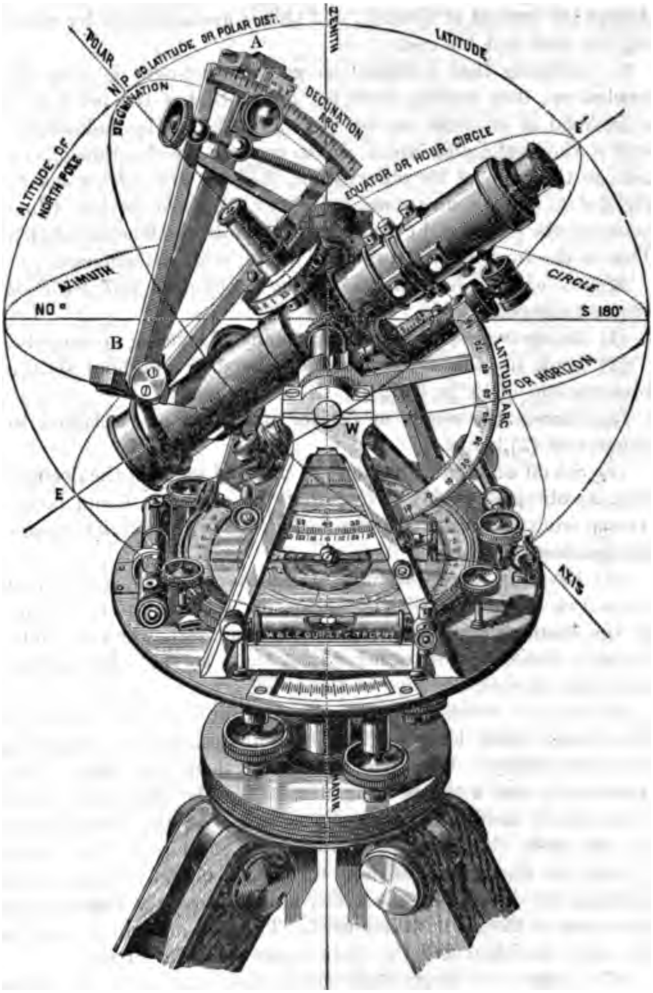

FIG. 604 (*a*).

This cut is kindly furnished by W. and L. E. Gurley of Troy, N. Y.

downward instead of upward, and this is accomplished by turning the arm end for end.

3. Assuming that a transit in good adjustment is properly leveled up, it is evident from the above that if the polar axis is inclined at an angle to the vertical equal to the co-latitude, and if the declination arc is set to read the declination of the sun at the time of the observation, then *the line AB cannot be directed to the sun unless the polar axis points to the pole* (thus bringing the line of sight of the telescope into the true meridian). This is the fundamental principle of the solar attachment.

Method of procedure in determining a meridian with the Burt solar attachment.

(1) Set up over some convenient point *M* leveling up roughly.

(2) Look up the declination for the day and hour of the observation. (See p. 623.)

(3) Correct the result in (2) for refraction as explained in suggestion (2) below.

(4) Set off on the declination arc the final value of the declination as obtained in (3). Note that the arm *AB* should be reversed from the position shown in Fig. 604 (*a*), p. 629, if the sun's declination is south.

(5) Level up very carefully, using the telescope level in at least two positions at right angles for the final test. Notice if the verniers on the vertical circle read zero when the telescope is level; if not, either adjust them so that they will or note the amount and *sign* of the index error.

(6) Set the verniers of the horizontal limb at zero, but leave the lower clamp loose so that both plates, clamped together, can turn freely. With one hand turn these two plates (and telescope), and with the other hand turn the arm of the solar attachment until the image of the sun is in the ruled square on the disk. Tighten the lower clamp, and bring the image exactly in the center (as seen through a magnifying-glass) by turning the lower tangent-screw, and if necessary turning also the arm of the solar attachment. The line of sight is now in the true meridian and the plate zeroes should read zero.

(7) Loosen the upper-plate clamp and sight at *N* the other end of a reference line *MN*. The azimuth of the line *MN* is the angle turned off, i.e., the reading on the limb. If desired a meridian *MO* may be established before the upper-plate clamp *loosened* by lining in a point O on the ground.

Practical suggestions. (1) Many of the suggestions on page 625 apply equally well to the use of the solar attachment, especially that pertaining to the best time for observations. (2) In correcting the declination for refraction in step (3) that table on page 649 should be used which most nearly corresponds to the latitude of the observer. Note the time of observation in hours before or after noon, and opposite this number in the table find the correction in the column corresponding most nearly to the declination. Notice that if the declination is north (+) the correction is to be added while if it is south (−) it is to be subtracted, or, if given the proper sign, the correction is always added algebraically (Northern hemisphere). (3) When the image has been centered in the ruled square it will at once move out, but if no mistake has been made it may be kept approximately in the square by simply revolving the solar attachment about the polar axis. If it is necessary to disturb the main part of the transit it shows that the polar axis is not pointing exactly at the pole or that some mistake was made in setting off the declination. (4) When the observation is completed the pointer which moves around the hour circle should indicate approximately the time of the observation. (5) The image should be examined through a magnifying-glass during the final steps of the observation. It is said that an error of one-quarter of a minute in azimuth or latitude can be detected by thus observing the sun's image; but, nevertheless, the instrument under the best of conditions cannot be relied upon to give as accurate results as may be obtained by the direct method of observation, page 624. (6) If at the end of step (6) the plate verniers do not read zero it is likely that the wrong tangent-screw has been turned; but no harm has been done, as the reading can be noted and subtracted from the final reading when sighting at *N*.

(*b*) THE SAEGMULLER SOLAR ATTACHMENT is in many respects superior to the Burt attachment. In place of the arm carrying the lens and silver disk, there is a small auxiliary telescope with a prismatic eyepiece through which the sun may be observed directly. The declination arc is usually omitted, and in its place a spirit-level is attached to the auxiliary telescope to aid in setting off the declination as explained below. The method of procedure is so similar to that just explained for the Burt attachment that only a brief outline is given.

Method of procedure for determining a true meridian with the Saegmuller solar attachment. (1) Find the final corrected value for the sun's declination at the time of observation. (See step (2) and (3) for the Burt attachment, p. 630.)

(2) Having leveled up carefully over some point *M* and noted whether there is any index error as in step (5), p. 630, back sight on some point *N*. Point the smaller telescope on the same backsight, thus bringing both telescopes into the same vertical plane.

(3) Incline the larger telescope until the reading on the vertical circle is equal to the corrected value of the sun's declination found in (1). If this declination is north depress the object-glass end of the telescope; if south elevate it. Without disturbing the larger telescope, bring the smaller telescope to a

horizontal position by means of its level. The angle between the two telescopes is now equal to the sun's declination.

(4) Without disturbing the relative positions of the two telescopes unclamp the vertical circle and set it to the co-latitude of the place of observation, making the object-glass end of the telescope the higher.

(5) Unclamp the upper horizontal plate, turn it (and the larger telescope) around the vertical axis, and at the same time turn the smaller telescope around the polar axis (see step 6, p. 630) until the image of the sun is brought into the field of the smaller telescope; when the image is accurately bisected the large telescope must be in the meridian *with the object-glass end toward the south.* The bearing of MN is then known from the reading on the horizontal limb, and if desired a true meridian may be staked out on the ground. (See step 7, p. 630)

Remark. If desired the plate verniers may be left clamped at zero until the sight has been taken at the sun, and then the angle turned off from the point N as directed in step (7), page 630.

Practical suggestions. Read the practical suggestions on pages 625 and 631.

605. Other Methods of Determining a Meridian. There are two other methods of determining a meridian, viz.: (1) Sight at the sun or a star when it is some distance from the meridian, carefully measuring its altitude, and then sight at it again when it has crossed the meridian and is at exactly the same altitude. In the case of a star the meridian is halfway between the two sights, and in the case of the sun it is nearly so, being found by applying a small correction. This method is called the method of equal altitudes, and is explained in detail in Mr. Barber's article at the end of this appendix.

(2) A second method is to sight at the sun at exactly noon. This method involves the determination of the true local time of the place of observation, i.e., the difference between the watch-time and sun-time. The method is described in *Engineering News,* March 31, 1904.

606. To Determine Latitude. (*a*) BY OBSERVATION ON POLARIS. (1) Observe polaris at culmination and correct the vertical angle for refraction (p. 623) and index error if there is any (see p. 98). The result is the true altitude. (2) If the star is at upper culmination subtract the polar distance of Polaris for the given date as given in the table below; if at lower culmination add the polar distance. The result is the required latitude. (Why? See p. 620.)

MEAN POLAR DISTANCE OF POLARIS FOR THE BEGINNING OF FICTITIOUS YEAR

Year.	Mean Polar Distance.	Year.	Mean Polar Distance.	Year.	Mean Polar Distance.
1906	1° 11′ 41.05″	1911	1° 10′ 07.82″	1916	1° 08′ 34.97″
1907	1° 11′ 22.37″	1912	1° 09′ 49.22″	1917	1° 08′ 16.45″
1908	1° 11′ 03.71″	1913	1° 09′ 30.64″	1918	1° 07′ 57.94″
1909	1° 10′ 45.07″	1914	1° 09′ 12.07″	1919	1° 07′ 39.45″
1910	1° 10′ 26.44″	1915	1° 08′ 53.51″	1920	1° 07′ 20.98″

Note. The above table is based upon data furnished for this book by the Superintendent of the U. S. Geodetic and Coast Survey. Each value is found by subtracting from 90° the *mean* declination of Polaris for the *beginning* of the corresponding fictitious year. If desired, the polar distance for any day in the year may be found from the apparent declination of Polaris as given for that day in the Nautical Almanac. For 1907 the apparent declination decreases from 88° 48′ 51.6″ on January 15 to 88° 48″19.8″ on July 1, and then increases to 88° 49′ 9.1″ on December 31.

The beginning of the *fictitious* (Besselian) year is the instant at which the mean sun is 280° from the vernal equinox. It differs from the beginning of the ordinary year by a fraction of a day which varies for different years. The *mean* place of a star at a given instant differs from the true place by the effect of nutation at that instant ,and from the apparent place by the effects of both nutation and aberration.

(*b*) BY OBSERVATION ON THE SUN AT NOON. (1) Sight at the lower or upper limb of the sun a little before noon, allowing for the difference between standard time and local mean time, and follow the sun until it reaches its highest point, i.e., when it crosses the meridian. (2) Correct the vertical angle for refraction (p. 346) and index error if there is any. The result is the true altitude of the sun's limb. If it is the lower limb add the sun's semi-diameter (about 16′, but given more exactly in the Nautical Almanac); if it is the upper limb subtract the semi-diameter. This corrected result is the true altitude of the sun's center. (3) From the true altitude of the sun's center found in (2) subtract *algebraically* the sun's declination. The result subtracted from 90° gives the required latitude. (Why? See Fig. 600, p. 620, where *S″M* represents the altitude at noon.)

(*c*) LATITUDE WITH SOLAR ATTACHMENT. The latitude of a place may be determined very easily with a solar attachment by observing the sun at noon.

(1) Set off the co-latitude (as nearly as can be estimated) and the corrected declination of the sun in the usual manner.

(2) Point the smaller telescope at the sun. (The two telescopes are in the same vertical plane but not parallel, the angle between them being equal to the corrected declination of the sun.) By means of the tangent screw which changes the inclination of the *larger* telescope, keep the *smaller* telescope pointing exactly at the sun until it ceases to move upward and begins to move downward. The reading of the vertical circle at this *highest altitude is equal* to the co-latitude.

607. Determination of the Meridian in High Latitudes—Observations by Equal Altitudes.*

THERE is no operation in the field-work of a land surveyor that is fundamentally more important than the establishment of a correct meridian line at the place of survey, from which to deflect the courses of boundaries.

The rules for surveying public lands prohibit a surveyor from assuming a probable "variation" of the magnetic compass to govern his work. They also prohibit him from depending on a variation of his needle throughout his work, though he may have obtained it by proper means at the outset, because all the successive courses may be influenced by unknown attraction.

A large number of surveys throughout the country are known to have been recorded with untrue courses, regardless of these requirements, causing many legal complications.

From a desire to aid surveyors to overcome the difficulties known to impede precision in this element of their work, especially in high latitudes like those of Alaska, and to determine exact meridians by astronomic means without very elaborate instruments, some suggestions are here offered as auxiliary to the means which are adapted to all places.

The use of equal altitudes has received slight notice in a few works on surveying, but has not been set forth in the detailed manner applied to the other processes. But since preparing this article and laying it aside for consideration, it has been learned that this principle was recommended to the deputies in one of the States by instructions issued some years ago by a surveyor-general. It was given them "as being available in emergencies, calling their attention to the advantages in such cases of being able to take the forenoon observation, go on with the survey till the afternoon time approached, and then complete the set. It is available also for P.M. followed by A.M. observation."

Thus the writer now finds, from correspondence, that one of the best authorities on these subjects then gave full indorsement to the equal-altitude method for using either sun or star, as being correct, practical, and of important utility in many contingencies.

The instructions now generally provided require that the meridian be ascertained by observation of either Polaris or the sun; and that the correctness of all solar work must be checked and confirmed by Polaris.

VARIOUS OBSTACLES

to compliance with these rules have been found in Alaska, and are evident:—

Polaris being from 55° to 70° above the horizon, it is too high to be observed without a reflecting eyepiece.

Its position so near the zenith greatly increases any instrumental error, in bringing a vertical line to the ground.

It is obscured by daylight during several months in the summer season.

Fogs and mists are said to be often prevalent, even after clear days.

The sun in winter reaches only a small elevation, moving in a low arc, with high and uncertain refraction, both causes unfavorable to accurate results.

The ordinary solar compass or transit is not constructed for use in such latitudes, and special constructions are inconvenient.

Yielding to these difficulties, it appears to have been a common but unauthorized practice to disregard accuracy, assume a magnetic declination, and work by the needle only

A SIMPLE AND PRACTICAL METHOD

is therefore very desirable, to enable surveys to be made with courses that will bear the test of a correct examiner. Such a method is now suggested, which may be used by any careful observer having a good common transit with vertical arc.

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* This article is a reprint of a paper by Mr. A. W. Barber, published in *Michigan Engineer the Proceedings of the Michigan Engineering Society for 1905.*

This process requires no reflecting eyepiece; no full vertical circle; no mathematical tables; no calculations of local mean time, standard time, sidereal time, or astronomical and civil day. It does not depend on the date nor the hour of the day, nor any reckoning of culmination, hour-angle, elongation, or polar azimuth. Neither does the sun's declination or the atmospheric refraction enter at all into the calculation.

Moreover, should there be unsuspected error in the graduation or setting of the vertical arc, or some defect of collimation in the telescope, it would equally affect both parts of the observer's work, and produce no effect in the resulting meridian.

THE METHOD BY EQUAL ALTITUDES

depends on the fact that the circumpolar stars describe invariable circular arcs below the true pole; and that when a peg is set on the ground to mark the course to a certain star when west of north at an altitude of say 35°, and another peg is afterward set to mark the position of that star when it has passed to the northeast and risen to the same precise elevation, the meridian of the transit will lie exactly midway between the pegs. Hence the surveyor may be advised to proceed as follows in any latitude or time of the year when the stars are sufficiently discernible:—

1. Choose a suitable station, set transit firmly and level precisely, by the telescope level turned in all directions.
2. Set the index arm for vertical angles at zero, and keep it tightly clamped for reading elevation angles.
3. Provide suitable illumination for cross-wires, and also for reading angles, horizontal and vertical.
4. Select a conspicuous star, perhaps 30° or 40° from the pole, which appears two hours more or less before its lower culmination—that is, which stands west of north and is rapidly descending. Identify this star beyond all chance of error, noting it on a diagram for certainty some hours later.
5. Direct the telescope to this point, fixing the star at the intersection of the cross-wires, and clamp the axis so it will retain the altitude shown on the arc. Read and note down the angle of elevation, and read more than once.
6. Unclamp the axis, bring the telescope to the earth, and have an assistant drive a peg in line with the cross-wire, from 3 to 5 chains distant. A candle held there before a white surface will exhibit the wire and give the exact point for a tack.
7. Repeat the observation once or twice, at intervals of 10 or 15 minutes, for confirmation of results, marking successive pegs, A, B, etc., with degrees and minutes of elevation found.
8. Be ready to observe the upward path of the same star after it has passed east below the pole. Correct the leveling, set the vertical index successively at each altitude previously noted (beginning with the lowest); and when the star (diagonally ascending in the field of the glass) approaches the horizontal wire, bring the vertical wire also upon the star at the intersection, using the slow-motion screw of the horizontal plate.
9. Keep the plate at that point, bring the telescope down, and set peg in line as before. Repeat the process for each observation A, B, etc., taken before midnight, marking each peg B, A, etc., with the elevation in figures.
10. Measure the arc between pegs A A denoting equal altitude, and take one half. Lay off this half from either peg, and set a peg and tack for the true meridian. As a test of correctness, the middle point between pegs B B and between C C should be found to coincide with the one first found. A single pair is sufficient, except for confirmation.

BY EQUAL ALTITUDES OF THE SUN.

In this operation a reflecting eyepiece with dark glass will be necessary. The sun's large image in the field cannot be centered as truly as a star. It is therefore found best to place the intersection of the wires at the lower limb (apparently the sun's upper edge, as reversed by the mirror) and at the precise point of tangency, when the sun is just leaving the horizontal wire, apparently descending, with the vertical wire bisecting its disk.

This is convenient for the forenoon observations; hence at the corresponding times after noon, with the proper altitude of telescope, one must be ready at the moment the sun (now apparently ascending) first reaches the level wire, having the vertical one bisect the sun by the point of tangency, as before

The pair of pegs in this case will be set southeast and southwest of the station. The center or bisecting line of the included arc would be the meridian, were it not for the sun's change of declination in the intervening time. This slight change requires a calculation for correction, which the star process avoids. The formula calls for a short arithmetical process, with a table of natural sines.

WORKING BY A REFERENCE MARK

Instead of using pegs and tacks for day-work in this line, the writer has found it easier to use a reference point or mark.

On April 17, after careful leveling, I set the horizontal plates at zero with the telescope directed at a distant spire for my mark. Clamp the lower plate fast, and direct the telescope to the sun, observing it as above shown. Find by the horizontal angle that the sun's azimuth to the left or east of the spire is 30° 27′; and by the vertical arc I find his altitude 47° 09′. (The semi-diameter may be disregarded in each pair of observations if the same limb of the sun is used each time.)

For the corresponding afternoon observation, I have the index of altitude fixed at 47° 09′, and watch the sun rise (apparently) to the proper position. At the right moment clamp the plate, use the slow motion, and when the disk is in position find from the horizontal plate that the sun is 84° 49′ west of the spire or mark.

The whole arc is 30° 27′ + 84° 49′ = 115° 16′; and the bisecting meridian is 57° 38′ from either position of the sun. From this one half I subtract the first azimuth of the sun from the mark; 57° 38′ − 30° 27′ = 27° 11′ as the true bearing of the mark from the uncorrected meridian, and it apparently bears S. 27° 11′ E. from the transit.

THE CORRECTION FOR DECLINATION

at or near the times of the solstices, will be merely theoretical, as an hourly difference of declination less than 10 seconds will be quite negligible. But during the rest of the year it should be ascertained, for it would amount to as much as a change of 10′ were observations taken six hours apart on September 25, in latitude 65°.

To calculate this correction: Take one half the change in declination between observations at equal altitude; divide these minutes of change by the product of the cosine of the latitude by the sine of half the difference in time expressed in degrees (15° per hour); the quotient will be the minutes of arc for the correction. This is to be applied from south to west from June 21 to December 21 (declination decreasing) and from south to east the rest of the year.

EXAMPLE OF ABOVE OPERATION

on April 17, in latitude 39°, using standard watch-time; second and third pairs of observations, the first pair being already noted.

B.	10 : 01 A.M.	altitude 49° 36′	azimuth E. from mark	26° 07′
C.	10 : 16 A.M.	altitude 51° 48′	azimuth E. from mark	21° 38′
C.	1 : 59 P.M.	altitude 51° 48′	azimuth W. from mark	76° 00′
B.	2 : 14 P.M.	altitude 49° 36′	azimuth W. from mark	80° 29′

The sum of the measured arcs of the B B positions, 26° 07′ + 80° 29′ = 106° 36′. The middle point for meridian is at 53° 18′. As the reference mark is 26° 07′ from the forenoon sun, its arc from the south meridian point must be 53° 18′ − 26° 07′, and its course from the transit is again found S. 27° 11′ E. (Uncorrected.)

The third pair, C C, gives 21° 38′ + 76° 00′ = 97° 38′. One half of this, or 48° 49′, less 21° 38′, gives the same resulting arc, 27° 11′.

CORRECTION FOR CHANGE OF DECLINATION

One half of the change on that day in 4¼ hours was 1.9′. The cosine *of the latitude* 39° is .78; the sine of half the difference in time (2⅛ hours = *about 32°) is* .53; their product is .78 × .53 = .41. Dividing 1.9′ by .41

the quotient is 4½ minutes of arc for correction of the south meridian point eastward. This gives the bearing of the spire or mark from the true meridian, S. 27° 06′ 30″ E.

THE DIRECT TRANSIT OBSERVATION OF THE SUN

for meridian is an operation highly commended by many; and with a perfect instrument used by an unerring workman it should be wholly reliable. Yet the writer meets numerous capable engineers who object to its use and will not depend on it.

There are so many uncertainties attending its use by unknown persons with the possibly disordered instruments, and so many lines nominally established by it have been found out of limits, that the method has not been approved in the Manual of Instructions unless the results are verified by the independent check of Polaris. The latter being direct and simple and having no possible connection with the solar methods, cannot be dispensed with as the court of last resort to prove the accuracy of the tedious and intricate "direct solar" problems, where the mean of repeated observations is apt to involve repetition of error.

To use the sun in that manner, one must sacrifice much time, in the best working hours, in observing and in solving his spherical triangles, usually under conditions of physical discomfort, while his party waits; or else he must proceed to work and secure his solution at another time and place.

Of all the methods of taking an observation for meridian, this appears most thickly beset with chances for error. The result is certainly affected by any index error in the vertical arc, or in the collimation of the telescope, unless one has a full circle annd eliminates the error by reversing, repeating, and averaging. Any arithmetical error in logarithmic readings or written work will vitiate the results.

The surveyor is obliged to pay due regard to latitude and co-latitude, altitude and zenith distance, declination and co-declination. He must take care of his standard time, longitude, and azimuth from reference mark. The exact refraction should be used, with due regard to temperature, barometer, and humidity. Having safely determined all these, he is then ready to perform his calculation; yet at last may well suspect whether some error has crept in, unless he has some independent test.

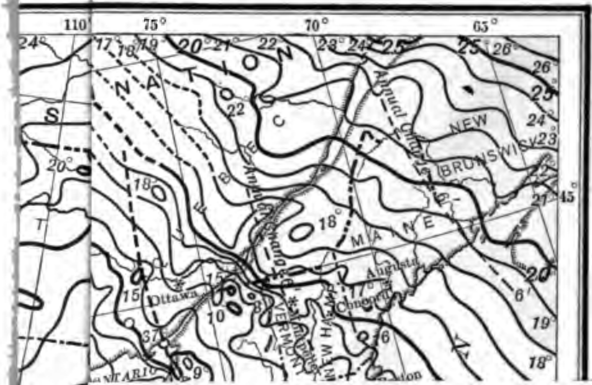
Such a check, suited to the latitude of Alaska or elsewhere, is believed to be found in the method of equal altitudes. A surveyor may set a tack beneath his star at ten in the evening, noting its altitude; and should fog and storm set in for a day or a week, it will only delay but not defeat his completion of the work. Whenever it clears off he can secure his counter observation about two in the morning, with no doubt of finding the correct meridian.

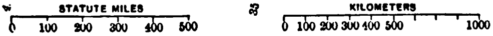
The foregoing pages will not appeal strongly to surveyors that are indifferent to certain precision, and averse to losing sleep; but they have been approved by several of a different class—men who have kept many a long vigil of the small hours to secure the most critical use of Polaris, and lay courses from which no competent inspector could materially differ.

LINES OF EQUAL MAGNETIC DECLINATION AND OF EQUAL ANNUAL CHANGE IN THE UNITED STATES FOR 1915.

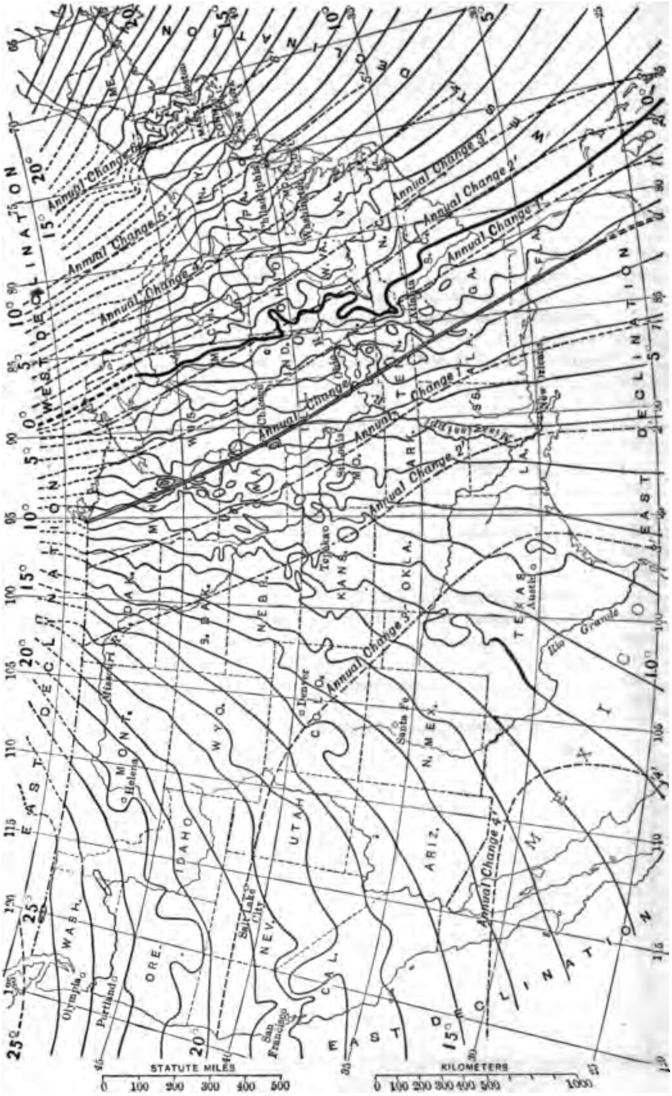
The lines of equal magnetic declination (full lines) apply to January 1. 1915. East of the line marked 0 (agonic line) the north end of the compass needle points west of north, west of that line it points east of north.

The north end of the compass needle is moving to the westward for places east of the line of no change and to the eastward for places west of that line at an annual rate indicated by the lines of equal annual change (broken lines)


110°
75°
70°
65°
45°
24°
17°
18°
19°
20°
21°
22°
23°
24°
25°
26°
QUEBEC
NEW BRUNSWICK
MAINE
VERMONT
NEW HAMP
Ottawa
Montpelier
Augusta
Concord
ONTARIO
Annual Change
15
10
9
8
37
16
6'
20


STATUTE MILES
0
100
200
300
400
500
KILOMETERS
0
100
200
300
400
500
1000

ISOGONIC CHART OF UNITED STATES



TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS.

Let A (Fig. 107) = angle BAC = arc BF, and let the radius $AF = AB = AH = 1$.

We then have

$\sin A = BC$
$\cos A = AC$
$\tan A = DF$
$\cot A = HG$
$\sec A = AD$
$\operatorname{cosec} A = AG$
$\operatorname{versin} A = CF = BE$
$\operatorname{covers} A = BK = HL$
$\operatorname{exsec} A = BD$
$\operatorname{coexsec} A = BG$
$\operatorname{chord} A = BF$
$\operatorname{chord} 2A = BI = 2BC$

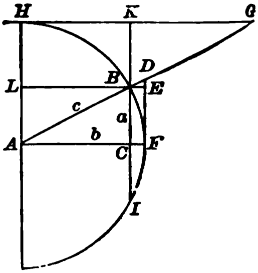


FIG. 107.

In the right-angled triangle ABC (Fig. 107)
Let $AB = c$, $AC = b$, and $BC = a$.
We then have:

1. $\sin A = \frac{a}{c} = \cos B$
2. $\cos A = \frac{b}{c} = \sin B$
3. $\tan A = \frac{a}{b} = \cot B$
4. $\cot A = \frac{b}{a} = \tan B$
5. $\sec A = \frac{c}{b} = \operatorname{cosec} B$
6. $\operatorname{cosec} A = \frac{c}{a} = \sec B$
7. $\operatorname{vers} A = \frac{c-b}{c} = \operatorname{covers} B$
8. $\operatorname{exsec} A = \frac{c-b}{b} = \operatorname{coexsec} B$
9. $\operatorname{covers} A = \frac{c-a}{c} = \operatorname{versin} B$
10. $\operatorname{coexsec} A = \frac{c-a}{a} = \operatorname{exsec} B$
11. $a = c \sin A = b \tan A$
12. $b = c \cos A = a \cot A$
13. $c = \frac{a}{\sin A} = \frac{b}{\cos A}$
14. $a = c \cos B = b \cot B$
15. $b = c \sin B = a \tan B$
16. $c = \frac{a}{\cos B} = \frac{b}{\sin B}$
17. $a = \sqrt{(c+b)(c-b)}$
18. $b = \sqrt{(c+a)(c-a)}$
19. $c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$
20. $C = 90° = A + B$
21. area $= \frac{ab}{2}$

SOLUTION OF OBLIQUE TRIANGLES.

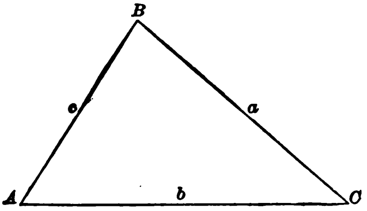


FIG. 108.

	GIVEN.	SOUGHT.	FORMULÆ.
22	A, B, a	C, b, c	$C = 180° - (A+B)$, $b = \frac{a}{\sin A} . \sin B$, $c = \frac{a}{\sin A} \sin (A+B)$
23	A, a, b	B, C, c	$\sin B = \frac{\sin A}{a} . b$, $C = 180° - (A+B)$, $c = \frac{a}{\sin A} . \sin C$.
24	C, a, b	$½(A+B)$	$½(A+B) = 90° - ½ C$
25		$½(A-B)$	$\tan ½(A-B) = \frac{a-b}{a+b} \tan ½(A+B)$
26		A, B	$A = ½(A+B) + ½(A-B)$, $B = ½(A+B) - ½(A-B)$
27		c	$c = (a+b)\frac{\cos ½(A+B)}{\cos ½(A-B)} = (a-b)\frac{\sin ½(A+B)}{\sin ½(A-B)}$
28		area	$K = ½ a b \sin C$.
29	a, b, c	A	Let $s = ½(a+b+c)$; $\sin ½ A = \sqrt{\frac{(s-b)(s-c)}{bc}}$
30			$\cos ½ A = \sqrt{\frac{s(s-a)}{bc}}$; $\tan ½ A = \sqrt{\frac{(s-b)(s-c)}{s(s-a)}}$
31			$\sin A = \frac{2\sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}}{bc}$; $\text{vers } A = \frac{2(s-b)(s-c)}{bc}$
32		area	$K = \sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}$
33	A, B, C, a	area	$K = \frac{a^2 \sin B . \sin C}{2 \sin A}$

TABLE I.

ELEVATIONS CORRESPONDING TO BAROMETRIC READINGS.*

B.	A.	Diff. for .01	B.	A.	Diff. for .01.	B.	A.	Diff. for .01.
Inches	Feet	Feet	Inches	Feet	Feet	Inches	Feet	Feet
18.0	13,918	−15.1	22.4	7,960	−12.2	26.7	3,175	−10.2
18.1	13,767	15.0	22.5	7,838	12.1	26.8	3,073	10.1
18.2	13,617	14.9	22.6	7,717	12.0	26.9	2,972	10.1
18.3	13,468	14.9	22.7	7,597	12.0	27.0	2,871	10.1
18.4	13,319	14.7	22.8	7,477	11.9	27.1	2,770	10.0
18.5	13,172	14.7	22.9	7,358	11.9	27.2	2,670	10.0
18.6	13,025	14.6	23.0	7,239	11.8	27.3	2,570	10.0
18.7	12,879	14.6	23.1	7,121	11.7	27.4	2,470	9.9
18.8	12,733	14.4	23.2	7,004	11.7	27.5	2,371	9.9
18.9	12,589	14.4	23.3	6,887	11.7	27.6	2,272	9.9
19.0	12,445	14.3	23.4	6,770	11.6	27.7	2,173	9.8
19.1	12,302	14.2	23.5	6,654	11.6	27.8	2,075	9.8
19.2	12,160	14.2	23.6	6,538	11.5	27.9	1 977	9.7
19.3	12,018	14.1	23.7	6,423	11.5	28.0	1,880	9.7
19.4	11,877	14.0	23.8	6,308	11.4	28.1	1,783	9.7
19.5	11,737	13.9	23.9	6,194	11.4	28.2	1,686	9.7
19.6	11,598	13.9	24.0	6,080	11.3	28.3	1,589	9.6
19.7	11,459	13.8	24.1	5,967	11.3	28.4	1,493	9.6
19.8	11,321	13.7	24.2	5,854	11.3	28.5	1,397	9.5
19.9	11,184	13.7	24.3	5,741	11.2	28.6	1,302	9.5
20.0	11,047	13.6	24.4	5,629	11.1	28.7	1,207	9.5
20.1	10,911	13.5	24.5	5,518	11.1	28.8	1,112	9.4
20.2	10,776	13.4	24.6	5,407	11.1	28.9	1,018	9.4
20.3	10,642	13.4	24.7	5,296	11.0	29.0	924	9.4
20.4	10,508	13.3	24.8	5,186	10.9	29.1	830	9.4
20.5	10,375	13.3	24.9	5,077	10.9	29.2	736	9.3
20.6	10,242	13.2	25.0	4,968	10.9	29.3	643	9.3
20.7	10,110	13.1	25.1	4,859	10.8	29.4	550	9.2
20.8	9,979	13.1	25.2	4,751	10.8	29.5	458	9.2
20.9	9,848	13.0	25.3	4,643	10.8	29.6	366	9.2
21.0	9,718	12.9	25.4	4,535	10.7	29.7	274	9.2
21.1	9,589	12.9	25.5	4,428	10.7	29.8	182	9.1
21.2	9,460	12.8	25.6	4,321	10.6	29.9	91	9.1
21.3	9,332	12.8	25.7	4,215	10.6	30.0	00	9.1
21.4	9,204	12.7	25.8	4,109	10.5	30.1	−91	9.0
21.5	9,077	12.6	25.9	4,004	10.5	30.2	181	9.0
21.6	8,951	12.6	26.0	3,899	10.5	30.3	271	9.0
21.7	8,825	12.5	26.1	3,794	10.4	30.4	361	9.0
21.8	8,700	12.5	26.2	3,690	10.4	30.5	451	8.9
21.9	8,575	12.4	26.3	3,586	10.3	30.6	540	8.9
22.0	8,451	12.4	26.4	3,483	10.3	30.7	629	8.8
22.1	8,327	12.3	26.5	3,380	10.3	30.8	717	8.8
22.2	8,204	12.2	26.6	3,277	−10.2	30.9	805	−8.8
22.3	8,082	−12.2	26.7	3,175		31.0	−893	
22.4	7,960							

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* Taken from Appendix 10, Report of U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey for 1881.

RECTION COEFFICIENTS TO BAROMETRIC ELEVATIONS FOR TEMPERATURE AND HUMIDITY.*

C.	Diff. for 1°	*t+t′.*	*C.*	Diff. for 1°.	*t+t′.*	*C.*	Diff. for 1°.
−0.1250	10.9	60°	−0.0380	10.7	120°	+0.0262	10.6
− .0915	10.9	70°	− .0273	10.7	130°	+ .0368	10.4
− .0806	10.8	80°	− .0166	10.8	140°	+ .0472	10.3
− .0698	10.6	90°	− .0058	10.7	150	+ .0575	10.2
− .0592	10.6	100°	+ .0049	10.7	160°	+ .0677	10.2
− .0486	10.6	110°	+ .0156	10.6	170°	+ .0779	10.0
− .0380		120°	+ .0262		180°	+ .0879	

mpiled from Tables I and IV, Report of U. S. Coast and Geodetic for 1881.

TABLE III.

NT AND VARIATION OF THE MAGNETIC NEEDLE FROM ITS MEAN DAILY POSITION.

letters E and W indicate which side of the mean position the needle

ason and Position in Latitude.	Local Mean Time: Morning Hours.						
	6 h.	7 h.	8 h.	9 h.	10 h.	11 h.	12 h.
ber, January, February:	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.
tude 37° to 49°........	0.7 E	1.1 E	1.9 E	2.2 E	1.5 E	0.1 W	1.8 W
tude 25° to 37°........	0.1 W	0.1 E	1.0 E	2.0 E	2.2 E	1.1 E	0.5 W
, April, May:							
tude 37° to 49°........	2.6 E	3.8 E	4.4 E	3.5 E	1.2 E	1.6 E	3.8 W
tude 25° to 37°........	1.6 E	2.8 E	3.3 E	2.6 E	1.1 E	0.6 W	1.9 W
July, August:							
tude 37° to 49°........	4.0 E	5.6 E	5.7 E	4.5 E	1.7 E	1.6 E	4.1 W
tude 25° to 37°........	2.4 E	4.0 E	4.2 E	2.9 E	0.5 E	1.6 W	2.8 W
ber, October, November.							
tude 37° to 49°........	1.8 E	2.6 E	3.1 E	2.5 E	1.0 E	1.5 E	3.3 W
tude 25° to 37°........	0.9 E	2.1 E	2.6 E	2.1 E	0.6 E	0.9 E	2.1 W

ason and Position in Latitude.	Local Mean Time: Afternoon Hours.						
	0 h.	1 h.	2 h.	3 h.	4 h.	5 h.	6 h.
ber, January February:	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.
tude 37° to 49°........	1.8 W	2.9 W	2.8 W	2.1 W	1.3 W	0.7 W	0.2 W
tude 25° to 37°........	0.5 W	1.5 W	1.8 W	1.6 W	1.0 W	0.4 W	0.1 W
April, May:							
tude 37° to 49°........	3.8 W	4.8 W	4.6 W	3.8 W	2.5 W	1.4 W	0.7 W
tude 25° to 37°........	1.9 W	2.6 W	2.8 W	2.4 W	1.6 W	0.9 W	0.5 W
July, August:							
tude 37° to 49°........	4.1 W	5.6 W	5.6 W	4.6 W	3.0 W	1.4 W	0.6 W
tude 25° to 37°........	2.8 W	3.2 W	3.1 W	2.4 W	1.5 W	0.8 W	0.4 W
ber, October, November:							
tude 37° to 49°........	3.3 W	4.0 W	3.4 W	2.3 W	1.2 W	0.6 W	0.1 W
tude 25° to 37°........	2.1 W	2.3 W	1.9 W	1.2 W	0.7 W	0.4 W	0.2 W

TABLE IV.

LOCAL CIVIL TIME OF THE ELONGATIONS OF POLARIS IN THE YEAR 1905.

(Computed for Latitude 40° north and Longitude 90° or 6 h. west of Greenwich.)

Date.	Eastern Elongation.	Western Elongation.
1905.	h. m.	h. m.
January 1	12 46.4 P.M.	12 39.3 A.M.
January 15	11 51.1 A.M.	11 41.1 P.M.
February 1	10 44.0 A.M.	10 34.0 P.M.
February 15	9 48.7 A.M.	9 38.7 P.M.
March 1	8 53.5 A.M.	8 43.5 P.M.
March 15	7 58.3 A.M.	7 48.3 P.M.
April 1	6 51.3 A.M.	6 41.3 P.M.
April 15	5 56.3 A.M.	5 46.3 P.M.
May 1	4 53.5 A.M.	4 43.5 P.M.
May 15	3 58.5 A.M.	3 48.5 P.M.
June 1	2 51.9 A.M.	2 41.9 P.M.
June 15	1 57.1 A.M.	1 47.1 P.M.
July 1	12 54.4 A.M.	12 44.4 P.M.
July 15	11 55.7 P.M.	11 49.6 A.M.
August 1	10 49.1 P.M.	10 43.1 A.M.
August 15	9 54.3 P.M.	9 48.2 A.M.
September 1	8 47.7 P.M.	8 41.6 A.M.
September 15	7 52.8 P.M.	7 46.7 A.M.
October 1	6 50.0 P.M.	6 43.9 A.M.
October 15	5 55.0 P.M.	5 48.9 A.M.
November 1	4 48.2 P.M.	4 42.1 A.M.
November 15	3 53.0 P.M.	3 47.0 A.M.
December 1	2 50.0 P.M.	2 43.9 A.M.
December 15	1 54.8 P.M.	1 48.7 A.M.

To find the time of culmination. The time between either elongation and upper culmination is about 5 hrs. 55 m., while between either elongation and lower culmination it is about 6 hrs. 3 m. (See p. 358.)

A. To refer the above tabular quantities to years subsequent to 1905:

For year 1907 add	2.5	minutes	
1908 "	3.8	"	up to March 1
1908 subtract	0.1	"	on and after March 1
1909 add	1.1	"	
1910 "	2.3	"	
1911 "	3.6	"	
1912 "	5.0	"	up to March 1
1912 "	1.1	"	on and after March 1
1913 "	2.5	"	
1914 "	3.9	"	
1915 "	5.4	"	
1916 "	6.9	"	up to March 1
1916 "	3.0	"	on and after March 1
1917 "	4.6	"	
1918 "	6.2	"	
1919 "	7.8	"	
1920 "	9.4	"	up to March 1
1920 "	5.5	"	on and after March 1

B. *To refer to any calendar day other than the first and fifteenth of each month,* SUBTRACT *the quantities below from the tabular quantity for the* PRECEDING DATE *or* ADD *to the tabular quantity for the* FOLLOWING DATE:

Day of Month.		Minutes.	No. of Days Elapsed.
2 or	16	3.9	1
3	17	7.9	2
4	18	11.8	3
5	19	15.7	4
6	20	19.6	5
7	21	23.6	6
8	22	27.5	7
9	23	31.4	8
10	24	35.4	9
11	25	39.3	10
12	26	43.2	11
13	27	47.2	12
14	28	51.1	13
	29	55.0	14
	30	58.9	15
	31	62.9	16

For the tabular year, two eastern elongations occur on July **14**, and two western elongations on January 11.

C. *To refer the table to standard time.* ADD to the tabular quantities four minutes for every degree of longitude the place is west of the standard meridian and SUBTRACT when the place is east of the standard meridian.

D. *To refer to any other than the tabular latitude between the limits of* 25° *and* 50° *North:* ADD to the time of WEST elongation $0^M.12$ for every degree south of 40° and SUBTRACT from the time of WEST elongation $0^M.17$ for every degree north of 40°. For EASTERN elongations SUBTRACT $0^M.12$ for every degree south of 40° and ADD $0^M.17$ for every degree north of 40°.

E. *To refer to any other than the tabular longitude;* ADD $0^M.16$ for each 15° east of the ninetieth meridian and SUBTRACT $0^M.16$ for each 15° west of the ninetieth meridian.

The deduced time of elongation will seldom be in error more than $0'.3$, especially before 1911.

Note. In the *Practical Suggestions* on page 357 are given complete directions for applying the above rules, together with an example illustrating the method of finding the time of elongation.

Table IV and the accompanying rules have been kindly furnished for this book by the Superintendent of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.

TABLE

AZIMUTH OF POLARIS WHEN AT ELONGATION

Latitude.	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912
25°	1° 19′.4	1° 19′.1	1° 18′.7	1° 18′.4	1° 18′.1	1° 17′.7	1° 17′.4	1° 17′.0
26	20 .1	19 .8	19 .4	19 .1	18 .7	18 .4	18 .0	17 .7
27	20 .8	20 .5	20 .1	19 .8	19 .4	19 .1	19 .1	18 .4
28	21 .6	21 .3	20 .9	20 .5	20 .1	19 .8	19 .4	19 .1
29	22 .4	22 .1	21 .7	21 .3	20 .9	20 .5	20 .2	19 .8
30	23 .1	22 .8	22 .4	22 .1	21 .7	21 .3	21 .0	20 .6
31	24 .0	23 .6	23 .2	22 .5	22 .2	21 .2	21 .8	21 .5
32	24 .9	24 .5	24 .1	23 .8	23 .4	23 .1	22 .7	22 .3
33	25 .9	25 .5	25 .1	24 .7	24 .3	24 .0	23 .6	23 .3
34	26 .9	26 .5	26 .1	25 .7	25 .3	25 .0	24 .6	24 .2
35	27 .9	27 .5	27 .1	26 .8	26 .4	26 .0	25 .6	25 .2
36	29 .0	28 .6	28 .2	27 .9	27 .5	27 .1	26 .7	26 .1
37	30 .1	29 .7	29 .3	29 .0	28 .6	28 .2	27 .8	27 .4
38	31 .4	31 .0	30 .6	30 .2	29 .8	29 .4	29 .0	28 .6
39	32 .7	32 .3	31 .8	31 .4	31 .0	30 .6	30 .2	29 .8
40	34 .0	33 .6	33 .2	32 .8	32 .4	32 .0	31 .6	31 .1
41	35 .4	35 .0	34 .6	34 .2	33 .8	33 .4	32 .9	32 .5
42	36 .9	36 .5	36 .0	35 .6	35 .2	34 .8	34 .2	34 .0
43	38 .5	38 .1	37 .6	37 .2	36 .8	36 .3	35 .9	35 .5
44	40 .1	39 .7	39 .2	38 .8	38 .4	37 .9	37 .5	37 .1
45	41 .8	41 .4	40 .9	40 .5	40 .1	39 .6	39 .2	38 .7
46	43 .7	43 .2	42 .7	42 .3	41 .9	41 .4	41 .0	40 .5
47	45 .6	45 .1	44 .6	44 .2	43 .7	43 .3	42 .8	42 .4
48	47 .7	47 .2	46 .7	46 .3	45 .8	45 .3	44 .8	44 .4
49	49 .8	49 .3	48 .8	48 .4	47 .9	47 .4	46 .9	46 .4
50	1° 52′.0	1° 51′.5	1° 51′.0	1° 50′.6	1° 50′.1	1° 49′.6	1° 49′.1	1° 48′.1

The above Table was computed with mean declination of Polaris for each year. A more accurate result will be had by applying to the tabular values the following correction, which depends on the difference of the mean and the apparent place of the star. (See Note in Art. 605.) The deduced azimuth will, in general, be correct within 0′.3.

The azimuths in Table V are reckoned clockwise from the true north for the eastern elongation, and counter-clockwise from the true north for the western elongation. For intermediate latitudes values may be obtained by interpolation without in general exceeding an error of 0′.3. Table V and the supplementary table have been kindly furnished by the Superintendent of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey for *publication* in this book.

ANY YEAR BETWEEN 1905 AND 1920

1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
1° 16′.7	1° 16′.4	1° 16′.0	1° 15′.7	1° 15′.3	1° 15′.0	1° 14′.7	1° 14′.3
17 .3	16 .6	16 .3	16 .3	16 .0	15 .5	15 .3	14 .9
18 .0	17 .7	17 .3	17 .0	16 .6	16 .3	15 .9	15 .6
18 .7	18 .4	18 .0	17 .7	17 .3	17 .0	16 .6	16 .3
19 .5	19 .1	18 .8	18 .4	18 .1	17 .7	17 .4	17 .0
20 .3	19 .9	19 .6	19 .2	18 .8	18 .5	18 .1	17 .8
21 .1	20 .7	20 .4	20 .0	19 .7	19 .3	18 .9	18 .6
22 .0	21 .6	21 .2	20 .9	20 .5	20 .1	19 .8	19 .4
22 .9	22 .5	22 .1	21 .8	21 .4	21 .0	20 .7	20 .3
23 .8	23 .5	23 .1	22 .7	22 .4	22 .0	21 .6	21 .2
24 .9	24 .5	24 .1	23 .7	23 .3	23 .0	22 .6	22 .2
25 .9	25 .5	25 .2	24 .8	24 .4	24 .0	23 .6	23 .3
27 .0	26 .7	26 .3	25 .9	25 .5	25 .7	24 .7	24 .3
28 .2	27 .8	27 .4	27 .0	26 .0	26 .2	25 .9	25 .5
29 .4	29 .0	28 .6	28 .2	27 .8	27 .5	27 .1	26 .7
30 .7	30 .3	29 .9	29 .5	29 .1	28 .7	28 .3	27 .9
32 .1	31 .7	31 .3	30 .9	30 .4	30 .0	29 .6	29 .1
33 .5	33 .1	32 .7	32 .3	31 .9	31 .5	31 .0	30 .5
35 .0	34 .6	34 .2	33 .8	33 .4	32 .9	32 .5	32 .1
36 .6	36 .2	35 .8	35 .3	34 .9	34 .5	34 .1	33 .6
38 .3	37 .8	37 .4	37 .0	36 .1	36 .1	35 .7	35 .3
40 .1	39 .6	39 .2	38 .7	38 .3	37 .8	37 .4	37 .0
41 .9	41 .5	41 .0	40 .6	40 .1	39 .7	39 .2	38 .8
43 .9	43 .4	43 .0	42 .5	42 .0	41 .6	41 .1	40 .7
46 .0	45 .5	45 .0	44 .5	44 .1	43 .6	43 .1	42 .7
1° 48 .2	1° 47′.7	1° 47′.2	1° 46′.2	1° 46′.2	1° 45′.7	1° 45′.3	1° 44′.8

For Middle of	Correction.	For Middle of	Correction.
uary.	−0′.5	July.	+0′.2
ruary.	−0 .4	August.	+0 .1
ch.	−0 .3	September.	−0 .1
il.	−0 .1	October.	−0 .4
. . . .	+0 .1	November.	−0 .6
e.	+0 .2	December.	−0 .8

TABLE VI. DEGREES AND TIME.

TO REDUCE DEGREES TO TIME.						TO REDUCE TIME TO DEGREES.					
°	H. M.	°	H. M.	Degrees.	Hours. Minutes.	Hours.	Degrees.	M.	° '	M.	° '
'	M. S.	'	M. S.					S.	' "	S.	' "
"	S. T.	"	S. T.					T.	" '''	T.	" '''
1	0 4	51	3 24	101	6 44	1	15	1	0 15	51	12 45
2	0 8	52	3 28	102	6 48	1½	22½	2	0 30	52	13 0
3	0 12	53	3 32	103	6 52	2	30	3	0 45	53	13 15
4	0 16	54	3 36	104	6 56	2½	37½	4	1 0	54	13 30
5	0 20	55	3 40	105	7 0	3	45	5	1 15	55	13 45
6	0 24	56	3 44	106	7 4	3½	52½	6	1 30	56	14 0
7	0 28	57	3 48	107	7 8	4	60	7	1 45	57	14 15
8	0 32	58	3 52	108	7 12	4½	67½	8	2 0	58	14 30
9	0 36	59	3 56	109	7 16	5	75	9	2 15	59	14 45
10	0 40	60	4 0	110	7 20	5½	82½	10	2 30	60	15 0
11	0 44	61	4 4	115	7 40	6	90	11	2 45	61	15 15
12	0 48	62	4 8	120	8 0	6½	97½	12	3 0	62	15 30
13	0 52	63	4 12	125	8 20	7	105	13	3 15	63	15 45
14	0 56	64	4 16	130	8 40	7½	112½	14	3 30	64	16 0
15	1 0	65	4 20	135	9 0	8	120	15	3 45	65	16 15
16	1 4	66	4 24	140	9 20	8½	127½	16	4 0	66	16 30
17	1 8	67	4 28	145	9 40	9	135	17	4 15	67	16 45
18	1 12	68	4 32	150	10 0	9½	142½	18	4 30	68	17 0
19	1 16	69	4 36	155	10 20	10	150	19	4 45	69	17 15
20	1 20	70	4 40	160	10 40	10½	157½	20	5 0	70	17 30
21	1 24	71	4 44	165	11 0	11	165	21	5 15	71	17 45
22	1 28	72	4 48	170	11 20	11½	172½	22	5 30	72	18 0
23	1 32	73	4 52	175	11 40	12	180	23	5 45	73	18 15
24	1 36	74	4 56	180	12 0	12½	187½	24	6 0	74	18 30
25	1 40	75	5 0	185	12 20	13	195	25	6 15	75	18 45
26	1 44	76	5 4	190	12 40	13½	202½	26	6 30	76	19 0
27	1 48	77	5 8	195	13 0	14	210	27	6 45	77	19 15
28	1 52	78	5 12	200	13 20	14½	217½	28	7 0	78	19 30
29	1 56	79	5 16	205	13 40	15	225	29	7 15	79	19 45
30	2 0	80	5 20	210	14 0	15½	232½	30	7 30	80	20 0
31	2 4	81	5 24	215	14 20	16	240	31	7 45	81	20 15
32	2 8	82	5 28	220	14 40	16½	247½	32	8 0	82	20 30
33	2 12	83	5 32	225	15 0	17	255	33	8 15	83	20 45
34	2 16	84	5 36	230	15 20	17½	262½	34	8 30	84	21 0
35	2 20	85	5 40	235	15 40	18	270	35	8 45	85	21 15
36	2 24	86	5 44	240	16 0	18½	277½	36	9 0	86	21 30
37	2 28	87	5 48	245	16 20	19	285	37	9 15	87	21 45
38	2 32	88	5 52	250	16 40	19½	292½	38	9 30	88	22 0
39	2 36	89	5 56	255	17 0	20	300	39	9 45	89	22 15
40	2 40	90	6 0	260	17 20	20½	307½	40	10 0	90	22 30
41	2 44	91	6 4	270	18 0	21	315	41	10 15	91	22 45
42	2 48	92	6 8	280	18 40	21½	322½	42	10 30	92	23 0
43	2 52	93	6 12	290	19 20	22	330	43	10 45	93	23 15
44	2 56	94	6 16	300	20 0	22½	337½	44	11 0	94	23 30
45	3 0	95	6 20	310	20 40	23	345	45	11 15	95	23 45
46	3 4	96	6 24	320	21 20	23½	352½	46	11 30	96	24 0
47	3 8	97	6 28	330	22 0	24	360	47	11 45	97	24 15
48	3 12	98	6 32	340	22 40			48	12 0	98	24 30
49	3 16	99	6 36	350	23 20			49	12 15	99	24 45
50	3 20	100	6 40	360	24 0			50	12 30	100	25 0

TABLE VII.

REFRACTIONS IN TERMS OF LATITUDE, HOUR-ANGLE, AND SUN'S DECLINATION.

A Table of Mean Refractions in Declination to be Used with the Solar Attachment.

Apply to the Declination as Found in the Ephemeris.

For Latitude 20°.

Hour-angle.	Declinations.								
	+20°	+15°	+10°	+5°	0°	−5°	−10°	−15°	−20°
0 h	0″	05″	10″	15″	21″	27″	33″	40″	48″
2	03	07	13	18	24	30	36	44	52
3	06	13	18	24	30	36	44	52	1′ 02
4	17	22	28	35	42	50	1′ 00	1′ 11	1 26
5	39	47	57	1′ 07	1′ 20	1′ 37	2 00	2 32	3 25

For Latitude 30°.

0 h	10″	15″	21″	27″	33″	40″	48″	57′	1′ 08″
2	14	19	25	31	38	46	54	1′ 05	1 18
3	20	26	32	39	47	55	1′ 06	1 19	1 36
4	32	39	46	52	1′ 06	1′ 19	1 35	1 57	2 29
5	1′ 00	1′ 10	1′ 24	1′ 52	2 07	2 44	3 46	5 43	13 06

For Latitude 40°.

0 h	21″	27″	33″	40″	48″	57″	1′ 08″	1′ 21″	1′ 39″
2	25	32	39	46	52	1′ 06	1 19	1 35	1 57
3	33	40	48	57	1′ 08	1 21	1 38	2 02	2 36
4	47	55	1′ 06	1′ 19	1 36	1 58	2 30	3 21	4 59
5	1′ 15	1′ 31	1 51	2 20	3 05	4 25	7 34	25 18	

For Latitude 50°

0 h	33″	40″	48″	57″	1′ 08″	1′ 21″	1′ 39″	2′ 02″	2′ 36″
2	38	46	55	1′ 06	1 18	1 35	1 57	2 28	3 19
3	47	56	1′ 06	1 19	1 36	2 29	2 31	3 23	5 02
4	1′ 02	1′ 14	1 29	1 48	2 16	2 58	4 18	6 59	19 47
5	1 30	1 51	2 19	3 04	4 22	7 28	24 10		

For Latitude 60°.

0 h	48″	57″	1′ 08″	1′ 21″	1′ 39″	2′ 02″	2′ 36″	3′ 33″	5′ 23″
2	54	1′ 04	1 17	1 33	1 54	2 24	3 12	4 38	8 15
3	1′ 03	1 15	1 30	1 51	2 20	3 04	4 24	7 31	24 44
4	1 18	1 34	1 56	2 28	3 18	4 50	8 53		
5	1 45	2 11	2 50	3 57	6 21	15 32			

TABLE VIII.

DECIMALS OF A FOOT FOR EACH 32D OF AN INCH.

In.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	In.
0	Foot	.0833	.1667	.2500	.3333	.4167	.5000	.5833	.6667	.7500	.8333	.9167	0
1-32	.0026	.0859	.1693	.2526	.3359	.4193	.5026	.5859	.6693	.7526	.8359	.9194	1-32
1-16	.0052	.0885	.1719	.2552	.3385	.4219	.5052	.5885	.6719	.7552	.8385	.9219	1-16
3-32	.0078	.0911	.1745	.2578	.3411	.4245	.5078	.5911	.6745	.7578	.8411	.9245	3-32
1-8	.0104	.0938	.1771	.2604	.3438	.4271	.5104	.5938	.6771	.7604	.8438	.9271	1-8
5-32	.0130	.0964	.1797	.2630	.3464	.4297	.5130	.5964	.6797	.7630	.8464	.9297	5-32
3-16	.0156	.0990	.1823	.2656	.3490	.4323	.5156	.5990	.6823	.7656	.8490	.9323	3-16
7-32	.0182	.1016	.1849	.2682	.3516	.4349	.5182	.6016	.6849	.7682	.8516	.9349	7-32
1-4	.0208	.1042	.1875	.2708	.3542	.4375	.5208	.6042	.6875	.7708	.8542	.9375	1-4
9-32	.0234	.1068	.1901	.2734	.3568	.4401	.5234	.6068	.6201	.7734	.8568	.9401	9-32
5-16	.0260	.1094	.1927	.2760	.3594	.4427	.5260	.6094	.6927	.7760	.8594	.9427	5-16
11-32	.0286	.1120	.1953	.2786	.3620	.4453	.5286	.6120	.6953	.7786	.8620	.9453	11-32
3-8	.0313	.1146	.1979	.2813	.3646	.4479	.5313	.6146	.6979	.7813	.8646	.9479	3-8
13-32	.0339	.1172	.2005	.2839	.3672	.4505	.5339	.6172	.7005	.7839	.8672	.9505	13-32
7-16	.0365	.1198	.2031	.2865	.3698	.4531	.5365	.6198	.7031	.7865	.8698	.9531	7-16
15-32	.0391	.1224	.2057	.2891	.3724	.4557	.5391	.6224	.7057	.7891	.8724	.9557	15-32
1-2	.0417	.1250	.2083	.2917	.3750	.4583	.5417	.6250	.7083	.7917	.8750	.9583	1-2
17-32	.0443	.1276	.2109	.2943	.3776	.4609	.5443	.6276	.7109	.7943	.8776	.9609	17-32
9-16	.0469	.1302	.2135	.2969	.3802	.4635	.5469	.6302	.7135	.7969	.8802	.9635	9-16
19-32	.0495	.1328	.2161	.2995	.3828	.4661	.5495	.6328	.7161	.7995	.8828	.9661	19-32
5-8	.0521	.1354	.2188	.3021	.3854	.4688	.5521	.6354	.7188	.8021	.8854	.9688	5-8
21-32	.0547	.1380	.2214	.3047	.3880	.4714	.5547	.6380	.7214	.8047	.8880	.9714	21-32
11-16	.0573	.1406	.2240	.3073	.3906	.4740	.5573	.6406	.7240	.8073	.8906	.9740	11-16
23-32	.0599	.1432	.2266	.3099	.3932	.4766	.5599	.6432	.7266	.8099	.8932	.9766	23-32
3-4	.0625	.1458	.2292	.3125	.3958	.4792	.5625	.6458	.7292	.8125	.8958	.9792	3-4
25-32	.0651	.1484	.2318	.3151	.3984	.4818	.5651	.6484	.7318	.8151	.8984	.9818	25-32
13-16	.0677	.1510	.2344	.3177	.4010	.4844	.5677	.6510	.7344	.8177	.9010	.9844	13-16
27-32	.0703	.1536	.2370	.3203	.4036	.4870	.5703	.6536	.7370	.8203	.9036	.9870	27-32
7-8	.0729	.1563	.2396	.3229	.4063	.4896	.5729	.6563	.7396	.8229	.9063	.9896	7-8
29-32	.0755	.1589	.2422	.3255	.4089	.4922	.5755	.6589	.7422	.8255	.9089	.9922	29-32
15-16	.0781	.1615	.2448	.3281	.4115	.4948	.5781	.6615	.7448	.8281	.9115	.9948	15-16
31-32	.0807	.1641	.2474	.3307	.4141	.4974	.5807	.6641	.7474	.8307	.9141	.9974	31-32
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

TABLE IX.

REDUCTION OF INCLINED DISTANCES TO THE HORIZONTAL.

Inclined Distance = 100 feet.

Slope.	Correction.	Horizontal Distance.	Slope.	Correction.	Horizontal Distance.
0° 00′	....	100.000	8° 00′	0.973	99.027
30	0.001	99.996	30	1.096	98.902
1 00	0.015	99.985	9 00	1.231	98.769
30	0.034	99.966	30	1.371	98.629
2 00	0.061	99.939	10 00	1.519	98.481
30	0.095	99.905	30	1.675	98.325
3 00	0.137	99.863	11 00	1.837	98.163
30	0.187	99.813	30	2.048	97.992
4 00	0.244	99.756	12 00	2.185	97.814
30	0.308	99.692	30	2.370	97.630
5 00	0.381	99.619	13 00	2.563	97.437
30	0.460	99.540	30	2.763	97.237
6 00	0.548	99.452	14 00	2.970	97.030
30	0.643	99.357	30	3.185	96.815
7 00	0.745	99.255	15 00	3.407	96.593
30	0.856	99.144	30	3.637	96.363

TABLE X.

REDUCTION OF STADIA READINGS

TO

HORIZONTAL DISTANCES

AND TO

DIFFERENCES OF ELEVATION.

This table was computed by Professor Arthur **Winslow**,
State Geologist of Missouri.

TABLE X.

STADIA REDUCTIONS FOR READING 100.

Minutes.	0°		1°		2°		3°	
	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.
0′	100.00	.00	99.97	1.74	99.88	3.49	99.73	5.23
2	"	.06	"	1.80	99.87	3.55	99.72	5.28
4	"	.12	"	1.86	"	3.60	99.71	5.34
6	"	.17	99.96	1.92	"	3.66	"	5.40
8	"	.23	"	1.98	99.86	3.72	99.70	5.46
10	"	.29	"	2.04	"	3.78	99.69	5.52
12	"	.35	"	2.09	99.85	3.84	"	5.57
14	"	.41	99.95	2.15	"	3.90	99.68	5.63
16	"	.47	"	2.21	99.84	3.95	"	5.69
18	"	.52	"	2.27	"	4.01	99.67	5.75
20	"	.58	"	2.33	99.83	4.07	99.66	5.80
22	"	.64	99.94	2.38	"	4.13	"	5.86
24	"	.70	"	2.44	99.82	4.18	99.65	5.92
26	99.99	.76	"	2.50	"	4.24	99.64	5.98
28	"	.81	99.93	2.56	99.81	4.30	99.63	6.04
30	"	.87	"	2.62	"	4.36	"	6.09
32	"	.93	"	2.67	99.80	4.42	99.62	6.15
34	"	.99	"	2.73	"	4.48	"	6.21
36	"	1.05	99.92	2.79	99.79	4.53	99.61	6.27
38	"	1.11	"	2.85	"	4.59	99.60	6.33
40	"	1.16	"	2.91	99.78	4.65	99.59	6.38
42	"	1.22	99.91	2.97	"	4.71	"	6.44
44	99.98	1.28	"	3.02	99.77	4.76	99.58	6.50
46	"	1.34	99.90	3.08	"	4.82	99.57	6.56
48	"	1.40	"	3.14	99.76	4.88	99.56	6.61
50	"	1.45	"	3.20	"	4.94	"	6.67
52	"	1.51	99.89	3.26	99.75	4.99	99.55	6.73
54	"	1.57	"	3.31	99.74	5.05	99.54	6.78
56	99.97	1.63	"	3.37	"	5.11	99.53	6.84
58	"	1.69	99.88	3.43	99.73	5.17	99.52	6.90
60	"	1.74	"	3.49	"	5.23	99.51	6.96
$c+f=.75$	.75	.01	.75	.02	.75	.03	.75	.05
$c+f=1.00$	1.00	.01	1.00	.03	1.00	.04	1.00	.06
$c+f=1.25$	1.25	.02	1.25	.03	1.25	.05	1.25	.08

TABLE X.

STADIA REDUCTIONS FOR READING 100.

Minutes.	4°		5°		6°		7°	
	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.
0'	99.51	6.96	99.24	8.68	98.91	10.40	98.51	12.10
2	"	7.02	99.23	8.74	98.90	10.45	98.50	12.15
4	99.50	7.07	99.22	8.80	98.88	10.51	98.48	12.21
6	99.49	7.13	99.21	8.85	98.87	10.57	98.47	12.26
8	99.48	7.19	99.20	8.91	98.86	10.62	98.46	12.32
10	99.47	7.25	99.19	8.97	98.85	10.68	98.44	12.38
12	99.46	7.30	99.18	9.03	98.83	10.74	98.43	12.43
14	"	7.36	99.17	9.08	98.82	10.79	98.41	12.49
16	99.45	7.42	99.16	9.14	98.81	10.85	98.40	12.55
18	99.44	7.48	99.15	9.20	98.80	10.91	98.39	12.60
20	99.43	7.53	99.14	9.25	98.78	10.96	98.37	12.66
22	99.42	7.59	99.13	9.31	98.77	11.02	98.36	12.72
24	99.41	7.65	99.11	9.37	98.76	11.08	98.34	12.77
26	99.40	7.71	99.10	9.43	98.74	11.13	98.33	12.83
28	99.39	7.76	99.09	9.48	98.73	11.19	98.31	12.88
30	99.38	7.82	99.08	9.54	98.72	11.25	98.29	12.94
32	99.38	7.88	99.07	9.60	98.71	11.30	98.28	13.00
34	99.37	7.94	99.06	9.65	98.69	11.36	98.27	13.05
36	99.36	7.99	99.05	9.71	98.68	11.42	98.25	13.11
38	99.35	8.05	99.04	9.77	98.67	11.47	98.24	13.17
40	99.34	8.11	99.03	9.83	98.65	11.53	98.22	13.22
42	99.33	8.17	99.01	9.88	98.64	11.59	98.20	13.28
44	99.32	8.22	99.00	9.94	98.63	11.64	98.19	13.33
46	99.31	8.28	98.99	10.00	98.61	11.70	98.17	13.39
48	99.30	8.34	98.98	10.05	98.60	11.76	98.16	13.45
50	99.29	8.40	98.97	10.11	98.58	11.81	98.14	13.50
52	99.28	8.45	98.96	10.17	98.57	11.87	98.13	13.56
54	99.27	8.51	98.94	10.22	98.56	11.93	98.11	13.61
56	99.26	8.57	98.93	10.28	98.54	11.98	98.10	13.67
58	99.25	8.63	98.92	10.34	98.53	12.04	98.08	13.73
60	99.24	8.68	98.91	10.40	98.51	12.10	98.06	13.78
$c+f=.75$	.75	.06	.75	.07	.75	.08	.74	.10
$c+f=1.00$	1.00	.08	.99	.09	.99	.11	.99	.13
$c+f=1.25$	1.25	.10	1.24	.11	1.24	.14	1.24	.16

TABLE X.

STADIA REDUCTIONS FOR READING 100.

Minutes.	8°		9°		10°		11°	
	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.
0′	98.06	13.78	97.55	15.45	96.98	17.10	96.36	18.73
2	98.05	13.84	97.53	15.51	96.96	17.16	96.34	18.78
4	98.03	13.89	97.52	15.56	96.94	17.21	96.32	18.84
6	98.01	13.95	97.50	15.62	96.92	17.26	96.29	18.89
8	98.00	14.01	97.48	15.67	96.90	17.32	96.27	18.95
10	97.98	14.06	97.46	15.73	96.88	17.37	96.25	19.00
12	97.97	14.12	97.44	15.78	96.86	17.43	96.23	19.05
14	97.95	14.17	97.43	15.84	96.84	17.48	96.21	19.11
16	97.93	14.23	97.41	15.89	96.82	17.54	96.18	19.16
18	97.92	14.28	97.39	15.95	96.80	17.59	96.16	19.21
20	97.90	14.34	97.37	16.00	96.78	17.65	96.14	19.27
22	97.88	14.40	97.35	16.06	96.76	17.70	96.12	19.32
24	97.87	14.45	97.33	16.11	96.74	17.76	96.09	19.38
26	97.85	14.51	97.31	16.17	96.72	17.81	96.07	19.43
28	97.83	14.56	97.29	16.22	96.70	17.86	96.05	19.48
30	97.82	14.62	97.28	16.28	96.68	17.92	96.03	19.54
32	97.80	14.67	97.26	16.33	96.66	17.97	96.00	19.59
34	97.78	14.73	97.24	16.39	96.64	18.03	95.98	19.64
36	97.76	14.79	97.22	16.44	96.62	18.08	95.96	19.70
38	97.75	14.84	97.20	16.50	96.60	18.14	95.93	19.75
40	97.73	14.90	97.18	16.55	96.57	18.19	95.91	19.80
42	97.71	14.95	97.16	16.61	96.55	18.24	95.89	19.86
44	97.69	15.01	97.14	16.66	96.53	18.30	95.86	19.91
46	97.68	15.06	97.12	16.72	96.51	18.35	95.84	19.96
48	97.66	15.12	97.10	16.77	96.49	18.41	95.82	20.02
50	97.64	15.17	97.08	16.83	96.47	18.46	95.79	20.07
52	97.62	15.23	97.06	16.88	96.45	18.51	95.77	20.12
54	97.61	15.28	97.04	16.94	96.42	18.57	95.75	20.18
56	97.59	15.34	97.02	16.99	96.40	18.62	95.72	20.23
58	97.57	15.40	97.00	17.05	96.38	18.68	95.70	20.28
60	97.55	15.45	96.98	17.10	96.36	18.73	95.68	20.34
$c+f=$ .75	.74	.11	.74	.12	.74	.14	.73	.15
$c+f=$ 1.00	.99	.15	.99	.16	.98	.18	.98	.20
$c+f=$ 1.25	1.23	.18	1.23	.21	1.23	.23	1.22	.25

TABLE X.

STADIA REDUCTIONS FOR READING 100.

Minutes.	12°		13°		14°		15°	
	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.
0′	95.68	20.34	94.94	21.92	94.15	23.47	93.30	25.00
2	95.65	20.39	94.91	21.97	94.12	23.52	93.27	25.05
4	95.63	20.44	94.89	22.02	94.09	23.58	93.24	25.10
6	95.61	20.50	94.86	22.08	94.07	23.63	93.21	25.15
8	95.58	20.55	94.84	22.13	94.04	23.68	93.18	25.20
10	95.56	20.60	94.81	22.18	94.01	23.73	93.16	25.25
12	95.53	20.66	94.79	22.23	93.98	23.78	93.13	25.30
14	95.51	20.71	94.76	22.28	93.95	23.83	93.10	25.35
16	95.49	20.76	94.73	22.34	93.93	23.88	93.07	25.40
18	95.46	20.81	94.71	22.39	93.90	23.93	93.04	25.45
20	95.44	20.87	94.68	22.44	93.87	23.99	93.01	25.50
22	95.41	20.92	94.66	22.49	93.84	24.04	92.98	25.55
24	95.39	20.97	94.63	22.54	93.81	24.09	92.95	25.60
26	95.36	21.03	94.60	22.60	93.79	24.14	92.92	25.65
28	95.34	21.08	94.58	22.65	93.76	24.19	92.89	25.70
30	95.32	21.13	94.55	22.70	93.73	24.24	92.86	25.75
32	95.29	21.18	94.52	22.75	93.70	24.29	92.83	25.80
34	95.27	21.24	94.50	22.80	93.67	24.34	92.80	25.85
36	95.24	21.29	94.47	22.85	93.65	24.39	92.77	25.90
38	95.22	21.34	94.44	22.91	93.62	24.44	92.74	25.95
40	95.19	21.39	94.42	22.96	93.59	24.49	92.71	26.00
42	95.17	21.45	94.39	23.01	93.56	24.55	92.68	26.05
44	95.14	21.50	94.36	23.06	93.53	24.60	92.65	26.10
46	95.12	21.55	94.34	23.11	93.50	24.65	92.62	26.15
48	95.09	21.60	94.31	23.16	93.47	24.70	92.59	26.20
50	95.07	21.66	94.28	23.22	93.45	24.75	92.56	26.25
52	95.04	21.71	94.26	23.27	93.42	24.80	92.53	26.30
54	95.02	21.76	94.23	23.32	93.39	24.85	92.49	26.35
56	94.99	21.81	94.20	23.37	93.36	24.90	92.46	26.40
58	94.97	21.87	94.17	23.42	93.33	24.95	92.43	26.45
60	94.94	21.92	94.15	23.47	93.30	25.00	92.40	26.50
$c + f = .75$	.73	.16	.73	.17	.73	.19	.72	.20
$c + f = 1.00$	.98	.22	.97	.23	.97	.25	.96	.27
$c + f = 1.25$	1.22	.27	1.21	.29	1.21	.31	1.20	.34

TABLE X.

STADIA REDUCTIONS FOR READING 100.

Minutes.	16°		17°		18°		19°	
	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.
0′	92.40	26.50	91.45	27.96	90.45	29.39	89.40	30.78
2	92.37	26.55	91.42	28.01	90.42	29.44	89.36	30.83
4	92.34	26.59	91.39	28.06	90.38	29.48	89.33	30.87
6	92.31	26.64	91.35	28.10	90.35	29.53	89.29	30.92
8	92.28	26.69	91.32	28.15	90.31	29.58	89.26	30.97
10	92.25	26.74	91.29	28.20	90.28	29.62	89.22	31.01
12	92.22	26.79	91.26	28.25	90.24	29.67	89.18	31.06
14	92.19	26.84	91.22	28.30	90.21	29.72	89.15	31.10
16	92.15	26.89	91.19	28.34	90.18	29.76	89.11	31.15
18	92.12	26.94	91.16	28.39	90.14	29.81	89.08	31.19
20	92.09	26.99	91.12	28.44	90.11	29.86	89.04	31.24
22	92.06	27.04	91.09	28.49	90.07	29.90	89.00	31.28
24	92.03	27.09	91.06	28.54	90.04	29.95	88.96	31.33
26	92.00	27.13	91.02	28.58	90.00	30.00	88.93	31.38
28	91.97	27.18	90.99	28.63	89.97	30.04	88.89	31.42
30	91.93	27.23	90.96	28.68	89.93	30.09	88.86	31.47
32	91.90	27.28	90.92	28.73	89.90	30.14	88.82	31.51
34	91.87	27.33	90.89	28.77	89.86	30.19	88.78	31.56
36	91.84	27.38	90.86	28.82	89.83	30.23	88.75	31.60
38	91.81	27.43	90.82	28.87	89.79	30.28	68.71	31.65
40	91.77	27.48	90.79	28.92	89.76	30.32	88.67	31.69
42	91.74	27.52	90.76	28.96	89.72	30.37	88.64	31.74
44	91.71	27.57	90.72	29.01	89.69	30.41	88.60	31.78
46	91.68	27.62	90.69	29.06	89.65	30.46	88.56	31.83
48	91.65	27.67	90.66	29.11	89.61	30.51	88.53	31.87
50	91.61	27.72	90.62	29.15	89.58	30.55	88.49	31.92
52	91.58	27.77	90.59	29.20	89.54	30.60	88.45	31.96
54	91.55	27.81	90.55	29.25	89.51	30.65	88.41	32.01
56	91.52	27.86	90.52	29.30	89.47	30.69	88.38	32.05
58	91.48	27.91	90.48	29.34	89.44	30.74	88.34	32.09
60	91.45	27.96	90.45	29.39	89.40	30.78	88.30	32.14
$c+f=.75$	.72	.21	.72	.23	.71	.24	.71	.25
$c+f=1.00$	.96	.28	.95	.30	.95	.32	.94	.33
$c+f=1.25$	1.20	.36	1.19	.38	1.19	.40	1.18	.42

TABLE X.

STADIA REDUCTIONS FOR READING 100.

Minutes.	20°		21°		22°		23°	
	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.
0′	88.30	32.14	87.16	33.46	85.97	34.73	84.73	35.97
2	88.26	32.18	87.12	33.50	85.93	34.77	84.69	36.01
4	88.23	32.23	87.08	33.54	85.89	34.82	84.65	36.05
6	88.19	32.27	87.04	33.59	85.85	34.86	84.61	36.09
8	88.15	32.32	87.00	33.63	85.80	34.90	84.57	36.13
10	88.11	32.36	86.96	33.67	85.76	34.94	84.52	36.17
12	88.08	32.41	86.92	33.72	85.72	34.98	84.48	36.21
14	88.04	32.45	86.88	33.76	85.68	35.02	84.44	36.25
16	88.00	32.49	86.84	33.80	85.64	35.07	84.40	36.29
18	87.96	32.54	86.80	33.84	85.60	35.11	84.35	36.33
20	87.93	32.58	86.77	33.89	85.56	35.15	84.31	36.37
22	87.89	32.63	86.73	33.93	85.52	35.19	84.27	36.41
24	87.85	32.67	86.69	33.97	85.48	35.23	84.23	36.45
26	87.81	32.72	86.65	34.01	85.44	35.27	84.18	36.49
28	87.77	32.76	86.61	34.06	85.40	35.31	84.14	36.53
30	87.74	32.80	86.57	34.10	85.36	35.36	84.10	36.57
32	87.70	32.85	86.53	34.14	85.31	35.40	84.06	36.61
34	87.66	32.89	86.49	34.18	85.27	35.44	84.01	36.65
36	87.62	32.93	86.45	34.23	85.23	35.48	83.97	36.69
38	87.58	32.98	86.41	34.27	85.19	35.52	83.93	36.73
40	87.54	33.02	86.37	34.31	85.15	35.56	83.89	36.77
42	87.51	33.07	86.33	34.35	85.11	35.60	83.84	36.80
44	87.47	33.11	86.29	34.40	85.07	35.64	83.80	36.84
46	87.43	33.15	86.25	34.44	85.02	35.68	83.76	36.88
48	87.39	33.20	86.21	34.48	84.98	35.72	83.72	36.92
50	87.35	33.24	86.17	34.52	84.94	35.76	83.67	36.96
52	87.31	33.28	86.13	34.57	84.90	35.80	83.63	37.00
54	87.27	33.33	86.09	34.61	84.86	35.85	83.59	37.04
56	87.24	33.37	86.05	34.65	84.82	35.89	83.54	37.08
58	87.20	33.41	86.01	34.69	84.77	35.93	83.50	37.12
60	87.16	33.46	85.97	34.73	84.73	35.97	83.46	37.16
$c + f =$ .75	.70	.26	.70	.27	.69	.29	.69	.30
$c + f =$ 1.00	.94	.35	.93	.37	.92	.38	.92	.40
$c + f =$ 1.25	1.17	.44	1.16	.46	1.15	.48	1.15	.50

TABLE X.

STADIA REDUCTIONS FOR READING 100.

Minutes.	24°		25°		26°		27°	
	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.	Hor. Dist.	Diff. Elev.
0′	83.46	37.16	82.14	38.30	80.78	39.40	79.39	40.45
2	83.41	37.20	82.09	38.34	80.74	39.44	79.34	40.49
4	83.37	37.23	82.05	38.38	80.69	39.47	79.30	40.52
6	83.33	37.27	82.01	38.41	80.65	39.51	79.25	40.55
8	83.28	37.31	81.96	38.45	80.60	39.54	79.20	40.59
10	83.24	37.35	81.92	38.49	80.55	39.58	79.15	40.62
12	83.20	37.39	81.87	38.53	80.51	39.61	79.11	40.66
14	83.15	37.43	81.83	38.56	80.46	39.65	79.06	40.69
16	83.11	37.47	81.78	38.60	80.41	39.69	79.01	40.72
18	83.07	37.51	81.74	38.64	80.37	39.72	78.96	40.76
20	83.02	37.54	81.69	38.67	80.32	39.76	78.92	40.79
22	82.98	37.58	81.65	38.71	80.28	39.79	78.87	40.82
24	82.93	37.62	81.60	38.75	80.23	39.83	78.82	40.86
26	82.89	37.66	81.56	38.78	80.18	39.86	78.77	40.89
28	82.85	37.70	81.51	38.82	80.14	39.90	78.73	40.92
30	82.80	37.74	81.47	38.86	80.09	39.93	78.68	40.96
32	82.76	37.77	81.42	38.89	80.04	39.97	78.63	40.99
34	82.72	37.81	81.38	38.93	80.00	40.00	78.58	41.02
36	82.67	37.85	81.33	38.97	79.95	40.04	78.54	41.06
38	82.63	37.89	81.28	39.00	79.90	40.07	78.49	41.09
40	82.58	37.93	81.24	39.04	79.86	40.11	78.44	41.12
42	82.54	37.96	81.19	39.08	79.81	40.14	78.39	41.16
44	82.49	38.00	81.15	39.11	79.76	40.18	78.34	41.19
46	82.45	38.04	81.10	39.15	79.72	40.21	78.30	41.22
48	82.41	38.08	81.06	39.18	79.67	40.24	78.25	41.26
50	82.36	38.11	81.01	39.22	79.62	40.28	78.20	41.29
52	82.32	38.15	80.97	39.26	79.58	40.31	78.15	41.32
54	82.27	38.19	80.92	39.29	79.53	40.35	78.10	41.35
56	82.23	38.23	80.87	39.33	79.48	40.38	78.06	41.39
58	82.18	38.26	80.83	39.36	79.44	40.42	78.01	41.42
60	82.14	38.30	80.78	39.40	79.39	40.45	77.96	41.45
$c+f=$ .75	.68	.31	.68	.32	.67	.33	.66	.35
$c+f=$ 1.00	.91	.41	.90	.43	.89	.45	.89	.46
$c+f=$ 1.25	1.14	.52	1.13	.54	1.12	.56	1.11	.58

′	0″	10″	15″	20″	30″	40″	45″	50″	′
0	.00000	00278	.00417	.00556	.00833	.01111	.01250	.01389	0
1	.01667	.01944	.02083	.02222	.02500	.02778	.02917	.03055	1
2	.03333	.03611	.03750	.03889	.04167	.04444	.04583	.04722	2
3	.05000	.05278	.05417	.05556	.05833	.06111	.06250	.06389	3
4	.06667	.06944	.07083	.07222	.07500	.07778	.07917	.08056	4
5	.08333	.08611	.08750	.08889	.09167	.09444	.09583	.09722	5
6	.10000	.10278	.10417	.10556	.10833	.11111	.11250	.11389	6
7	.11667	.11944	.12083	.12222	.12500	.12778	.12917	.13056	7
8	.13333	.13611	.13750	.13889	.14167	.14444	.14583	.14722	8
9	.15000	.15278	.15417	.15556	.15833	.16111	.16250	.16389	9
10	.16667	.16944	.17083	.17222	.17500	.17778	.17917	.18056	10
11	.18333	.18611	.18750	.18889	.19167	.19444	.19583	.19722	11
12	.20000	.20278	.20417	.20556	.20833	.21111	.21250	.21389	12
13	.21667	.21944	.22083	.22222	.22500	.22778	.22917	.23056	13
14	.23333	.23611	.23750	.23889	.24167	.24444	.24583	.24722	14
15	.25000	.25278	.25417	.25556	.25833	.26111	.26250	.26389	15
16	.26667	.26944	.27083	.27222	.27500	.27778	.27917	.28056	16
17	.28333	.28611	.28750	.28889	.29167	.29444	.29583	.29722	17
18	.30000	.30278	.30417	.30556	.30833	.31111	.31250	.31389	18
19	.31667	.31944	.32083	.32222	.32500	.32778	.32917	.33056	19
20	.33333	.33611	.33750	.33889	.34167	.34444	.34583	.34722	20
21	.35000	.35278	.35417	.35556	.35833	.36111	.36250	.36389	21
22	.36667	.36944	.37083	.37222	.37500	.37778	.37917	.38056	22
23	.38333	.38611	.38750	.38889	.39167	.39444	.39583	.39722	23
24	.40000	.40278	.40417	.40556	.40833	.41111	.41250	.41389	24
25	.41667	.41944	.42083	.42222	.42500	.42778	.42917	.43056	25
26	.43333	.43611	.43750	.43889	.44167	.44444	.44583	.44722	26
27	.45000	.45278	.45417	.45556	.45833	.46111	.46250	.46389	27
28	.46667	.46944	.47083	.47222	.47500	.47778	.47917	.48056	28
29	.48333	.48611	.48750	.48889	.49167	.49444	.49583	.49722	29
30	.50000	.50278	.50417	.50556	.50833	.51111	.51250	.51389	30
31	.51667	.51944	.52083	.52222	.52500	.52778	.52917	.53056	31
32	.53333	.53611	.53750	.53889	.54167	.54444	.54583	.54722	32
33	.55000	.55278	.55417	.55556	.55833	.56111	.56250	.56389	33
34	.56667	.56944	.57083	.57222	.57500	.57778	.57917	.58056	34
35	.58333	.58611	.58750	.58889	.59167	.59444	.59583	.59722	35
36	.60000	.60278	.60417	.60556	.60833	.61111	.61250	.61389	36
37	.61667	.61944	.62083	.62222	.62500	.62778	.62917	.63056	37
38	.63333	.63611	.63750	.63889	.64167	.64444	.64583	.64722	38
39	.65000	.65278	.65417	.65556	.65833	.66111	.66250	.66389	39
40	.66667	.66944	.67083	.67222	.67500	.67778	.67917	.68056	40
41	.68333	.68611	.68750	.68889	.69167	.69444	.69583	.69722	41
42	.70000	.70278	.70417	.70556	.70833	.71111	.71250	.71389	42
43	.71667	.71944	.72083	.72222	.72500	.72778	.72917	.73056	43
44	.73333	.73611	.73750	.73889	.74167	.74444	.74583	.74722	44
45	.75000	.75278	.75417	.75556	.75833	.76111	.76250	.76389	45
46	.76667	.76944	.77083	.77222	.77500	.77778	.77917	.78056	46
47	.78333	.78611	.78750	.78889	.79167	.79444	.79583	.79722	47
48	.80000	.80278	.80417	.80556	.80833	.81111	.81250	.81389	48
49	.81667	.81944	.82083	.82222	.82500	.82778	.82917	.83056	49
50	.83333	.83611	.83750	.83889	.84167	.84444	.84583	.84722	50
51	.85000	.85278	.85417	.85556	.85833	86111	.86250	.86389	51
52	.86667	.86944	.87083	.87222	.87500	.87778	.87917	.88056	52
53	.88333	.88611	.88750	.88889	.89167	.89444	.89583	.89722	53
54	.90000	.90278	.90417	.90556	.90833	.91111	.91250	.91389	54
55	.91667	.91944	.92083	.92222	.92500	.92778	.92917	.93056	55
56	.93333	.93611	.93750	.93889	.94167	.94444	.94583	.94722	56
57	.95000	.95278	.95417	.95556	.95833	.96111	.96250	.96389	57
58	.96667	.96944	.97083	.97222	.97500	.97778	.97917	.98056	58
59	.98333	.98611	.98750	.98889	.99167	.99444	.99583	.99722	59
′	0″	10″	15″	20″	30″	40″	45″	50″	′

CONVERSION OF ENGLISH INCHES INTO CENTIMETRES.

Ins.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Cm.	Cm.	Cm.	Cm.	Cm.	Cm.	Cm.	Cm.	Cm.	Cm.
0	0.000	2.540	5.080	7.620	10.16	12.70	15.24	17.78	20.32	22.86
10	25.40	27.94	30.48	33.02	35.56	38.10	40.64	43.18	45.72	48.26
20	50.80	53.34	55.88	58.42	60.96	63.50	66.04	68.58	71.12	73.66
30	76.20	78.74	81.28	83.82	86.36	88.90	91.44	93.98	96.52	99.06
40	101.60	104.14	106.68	109.22	111.76	114.30	116.84	119.38	121.92	124.46
50	127.00	129.54	132.08	134.62	137.16	139.70	142.24	144.78	147.32	149.86
60	152.40	154.94	157.48	160.02	162.56	165.10	167.64	170.18	172.72	175.26
70	177.80	180.34	182.88	185.42	187.96	190.50	193.04	195.58	198.12	200.66
80	203.20	205.74	208.28	210.82	213.36	215.90	218.44	220.98	223.52	226.06
90	228.60	231.14	233.68	236.22	238.76	241.30	243.84	246.38	248.92	251.46
100	254.00	256.54	259.08	261.62	264.16	266.70	269.24	271.78	274.32	276.86

CONVERSION OF CENTIMETRES INTO ENGLISH INCHES.

Cm.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.
0	0.000	0.394	0.787	1.181	1.575	1.969	2.362	2.756	3.150	3.544
10	3.937	4.331	4.742	5.118	5.512	5.906	6.299	6.693	7.087	7.480
20	7.874	8.268	8.662	9.055	9.449	9.843	10.236	10.630	11.024	11.418
30	11.811	12.205	12.599	12.992	13.386	13.780	14.173	14.567	14.961	15.355
40	15.748	16.142	16.536	16.929	17.323	17.717	18.111	18.504	18.898	19.292
50	19.685	20.079	20.473	20.867	21.260	21.654	22.048	22.441	22.835	23.229
60	23.622	24.016	24.410	24.804	25.197	25.591	25.985	26.378	26.772	27.166
70	27.560	27.953	28.347	28.741	29.134	29.528	29.922	30.316	30.709	31.103
80	31.497	31.890	32.284	32.678	33.071	33.465	33.859	34.253	34.646	35.040
90	35.434	35.827	36.221	36.615	37.009	37.402	37.796	38.190	38.583	38.977
100	39.370	39.764	40.158	40.552	40.945	41.339	41.733	42.126	42.520	42.914

CONVERSION OF ENGLISH FEET INTO METRES.

Feet	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Met.	Met.	Met.	Met.	Met.	Met.	Met.	Met.	Met	Met
0	0.000	0.3048	0.6096	0.9144	1.2192	1.5239	1.8287	2.1335	2.4383	2.7431
10	3.0479	3.3527	3.6575	3.9623	4.2671	4.5719	4.8767	5.1815	5.4863	5.7911
20	6.0959	6.4006	6.7055	7.0102	7.3150	7.6198	7.9246	8.2294	8.5342	8.8390
30	9.1438	9.4486	9.7534	10.058	10.363	10.668	10.972	11.277	11.582	11.887
40	12.192	12.496	12.801	13.106	13.411	13.716	14.020	14.325	14.630	14.935
50	15.239	15.544	15.849	16.154	16.459	16.763	17.068	17.373	17.678	17.983
60	18.287	18.592	18.897	19.202	19.507	19.811	20.116	20.421	20.726	21.031
70	21.335	21.640	21.945	22.250	22.555	22.859	23.164	23.469	23.774	24.079
80	24.383	24.688	24.993	25.298	25.602	25.907	26.212	26.517	26.822	27.126
90	27.431	27.736	28.041	28.346	28.651	28.955	29.260	29.565	29.870	30.174
100	30.479	30.784	31.089	31.394	31.698	32.003	32.308	32.613	32.918	33.222

CONVERSION OF METRES INTO ENGLISH FEET.

Met.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.
0	0.000	3.2809	6.5618	9.8427	13.123	16.404	19.685	22.966	26.247	29.528
10	32.809	36.090	39.371	42.651	45.932	49.213	52.494	55.775	59.056	62.337
20	65.618	68.899	72.179	75.461	78.741	82.022	85.303	88.584	91.865	95.146
30	98.427	101.71	104.99	108.27	111.55	114.83	118.11	121.39	124.67	127.96
40	131.24	134.52	137.80	141.08	144.36	147.64	150.92	154.20	157.48	160.76
50	164.04	167.33	170.61	173.89	177.17	180.45	183.73	187.01	190.29	193.57
60	196.85	200.13	203.42	206.70	209.98	213.26	216.54	219.82	223.10	226.38
70	229.66	232.94	236.22	239.51	242.79	246.07	249.35	252.63	255.91	259.19
80	262.47	265.75	269.03	272.31	275.60	278.88	282.16	285.44	288.72	292.00
90	295.28	298.56	301.84	305.12	308.40	311.69	314.97	318.25	321.53	324.81
100	328.09	331.37	334.65	337.93	341.21	344.49	347.78	351.06	354.34	357.62

VERSION OF ENGLISH STATUTE-MILES INTO KILOMETRES.

s.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Kilo.	Kilo.	Kilo.	Kilo.	Kilo.	Kilo.	Kilo.	Kilo.	Kilo.	Kilo.
	0.0000	1.6093	3.2186	4.8279	6.4372	8.0465	9.6558	11.2652	12.8745	14.4848
	16.093	17.702	19.312	20.921	22.530	24.139	25.749	27.358	28.967	30.577
	32.186	33.795	35.405	37.014	38.623	40.232	41.842	43.451	45.060	46.670
	48.279	49.888	51.498	53.107	54.716	56.325	57.935	59.544	61.153	62.763
	64.372	65.981	67.591	69.200	70.809	72.418	74.028	75.637	77.246	78.856
	80.465	82.074	83.684	85.293	86.902	88.511	90.121	91 730	93.339	94.949
	96 558	98.167	99.777	101.39	102.99	104.60	106.21	107.82	109.43	111.04
	112.65	114.26	115.87	117.48	119.08	120.69	122.30	123.91	125.52	127.13
	128.74	130.35	131.96	133.57	135.17	136.78	138.39	140.00	141.61	143.22
	144.85	146.44	148.05	149.66	151.26	152.87	154.48	156.09	157.70	159.31
	160.93	162.53	164 14	165 75	167.35	168.96	170.57	172.18	173.79	175.40

NVERSION OF KILOMETRES INTO ENGLISH STATUTE-MILES.

m.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.
	0.0000	0.6214	1.2427	1.8641	2.4855	3.1069	3.7282	4.3497	4.9711	5.5924
	6.2138	6.8352	7.4565	8.0780	8.6994	9.3208	9.9421	10.562	11.185	11.805
	12.427	13.049	13.670	14.292	14.913	15.534	16.156	16.776	17.399	18.019
	18.641	19.263	19.884	20.506	21.127	21.748	23.370	22.990	23.613	24.233
	24.855	25.477	26.098	26.720	27.341	27.962	28.584	29.204	29.827	30.447
	31.069	31.690	32.311	32.933	33.554	34.175	34.797	35.417	36.040	36 660
	37.282	37.904	38.525	39.147	39.768	40.389	41.011	41.631	42.254	42.874
	43.497	44.118	44.739	45.361	45.982	46.603	47.225	47.845	48.468	49.088
	49.711	50.332	50.953	51.575	52.196	52.817	53.439	54.059	54.682	55.302
	55.924	56.545	57.166	57.788	58.409	59.030	59.652	60.272	30.895	61.515
	62.138	62.759	63.380	64.002	64.623	65.244	65.866	66.486	67.109	67.729

TABLE XIII.

NGTH IN FEET OF 1′ ARCS OF LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE.

at.	1′ Lat.	1′ Long.	Lat.	1′ Lat.	1′ Long.
1°	6045	6085	31°	6061	5222
2°	6045	6083	32°	6062	5166
3°	6045	6078	33°	6063	5109
4°	6045	6071	34°	6064	5051
5°	6045	6063	35°	6065	4991
6°	6045	6053	36°	6066	4930
7°	6046	6041	37°	6067	4867
8°	6046	6027	38°	6068	4802
9°	6046	6012	39°	6070	4736
0°	6047	5994	40°	6071	4669
1°	6047	5975	41°	6072	4600
2°	6048	5954	42°	6073	4530
3°	6048	5931	43°	6074	4458
4°	6049	5907	44°	6075	4385
5°	6049	5880	45°	6076	4311
6°	6050	5852	46°	6077	4235
7°	6050	5822	47°	6078	4158
8°	6051	5790	48°	6079	4080
9°	6052	5757	49°	6080	4001
0°	6052	5721	50°	6081	3920
1°	6053	5684	51°	6082	3838
2°	6054	5646	52°	6084	3755
3°	6054	5605	53°	6085	3671
4°	6055	5563	54°	6086	3586
5°	6056	5519	55°	6087	3499
6°	6057	5474	56°	6088	3413
7°	6058	5427	57°	6089	3323
8°	6059	5378	58°	6090	3233
9°	6060	5327	59°	6091	3142
0°	6061	5275	60°	6092	3051

′	0°		1°		2°		3°		4°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.00000	One.	.01745	.99985	.03490	.99939	.05234	.99863	.06976	.99756	60
1	.00029	One.	.01774	.99984	.03519	.99938	.05263	.99861	.07005	.99754	59
2	.00058	One.	.01803	.99984	.03548	.99937	.05292	.99860	.07034	.99752	58
3	.00087	One.	.01832	.99983	.03577	.99936	.05321	.99858	.07063	.99750	57
4	.00116	One.	.01862	.99983	.03606	.99935	.05350	.99857	.07092	.99748	56
5	.00145	One.	.01891	.99982	.03635	.99934	.05379	.99855	.07121	.99746	55
6	.00175	One.	.01920	.99982	.03664	.99933	.05408	.99854	.07150	.99744	54
7	.00204	One.	.01949	.99981	.03693	.99932	.05437	.99852	.07179	.99742	53
8	.00233	One.	.01978	.99980	.03723	.99931	.05466	.99851	.07208	.99740	52
9	.00262	One.	.02007	.99980	.03752	.99930	.05495	.99849	.07237	.99738	51
10	.00291	One.	.02036	.99979	.03781	.99929	.05524	.99847	.07266	.99736	50
11	.00320	.99999	.02065	.99979	.03810	.99927	.05553	.99846	.07295	.99734	49
12	.00349	.99999	.02094	.99978	.02839	.99926	.05582	.99844	.07324	.99731	48
13	.00378	.99999	.02123	.99977	.03868	.99925	.05611	.99842	.07353	.99729	47
14	.00407	.99999	.02152	.99977	.03897	.99924	.05640	.99841	.07382	.99727	46
15	.00436	.99999	.02181	.99976	.03926	.99923	.05669	.99839	.07411	.99725	45
16	.00465	.99999	.02211	.99976	.03955	.99922	.05698	.99838	.07440	.99723	44
17	.00495	.99999	.02240	.99975	.03984	.99921	.05727	.99836	.07469	.99721	43
18	.00524	.99999	.02269	.99974	.04013	.99919	.05756	.99834	.07498	.99719	42
19	.00553	.99998	.02298	.99974	.04042	.99918	.05785	.99833	.07527	.99716	41
20	.00582	.99998	.02327	.99973	.04071	.99917	.05814	.99831	.07556	.99714	40
21	.00611	.99998	.02356	.99972	.04100	.99916	.05844	.99829	.07585	.99712	39
22	.00640	.99998	.02385	.99972	.04129	.99915	.05873	.99827	.07614	.99710	38
23	.00669	.99998	.02414	.99971	.04159	.99913	.05902	.99826	.07643	.99708	37
24	.00698	.99998	.02443	.99970	.04188	.99912	.05931	.99824	.07672	.99705	36
25	.00727	.99997	.02472	.99969	.04217	.99911	.05960	.99822	.07701	.99703	35
26	.00756	.99997	.02501	.99969	.04246	.99910	.05989	.99821	.07730	.99701	34
27	.00785	.99997	.02530	.99968	.04275	.99909	.06018	.99819	.07759	.99699	33
28	.00814	.99997	.02560	.99967	.04304	.99907	.06047	.99817	.07788	.99696	32
29	.00844	.99996	.02589	.99966	.04333	.99906	.06076	.99815	.07817	.99694	31
30	.00873	.99996	.02618	.99966	.04362	.99905	.06105	.99813	.07846	.99692	30
31	.00902	.99996	.02647	.99965	.04391	.99904	.06134	.99812	.07875	.99689	29
32	.00931	.99996	.02676	.99964	.04420	.99902	.06163	.99810	.07904	.99687	28
33	.00960	.99995	.02705	.99963	.04449	.99901	.06192	.99808	.07933	.99685	27
34	.00989	.99995	.02734	.99963	.04478	.99900	.06221	.99806	.07962	.99683	26
35	.01018	.99995	.02763	.99962	.04507	.99898	.06250	.99804	.07991	.99680	25
36	.01047	.99995	.02792	.99961	.04536	.99897	.06279	.99803	.08020	.99678	24
37	.01076	.99994	.02821	.99960	.04565	.99896	.06308	.99801	.08049	.99676	23
38	.01105	.99994	.02850	.99959	.04594	.99894	.06337	.99799	.08078	.99673	22
39	.01134	.99994	.02879	.99959	.04623	.99893	.06366	.99797	.08107	.99671	21
40	.01164	.99993	.02908	.99958	.04653	.99892	.06395	.99795	.08136	.99668	20
41	.01193	.99993	.02938	.99957	.04682	.99890	.06424	.99793	.08165	.99666	19
42	.01222	.99993	.02967	.99956	.04711	.99889	.06453	.99792	.08194	.99664	18
43	.01251	.99992	.02996	.99955	.04740	.99888	.06482	.99790	.08223	.99661	17
44	.01280	.99992	.03025	.99954	.04769	.99886	.06511	.99788	.08252	.99659	16
45	.01309	.99991	.03054	.99953	.04798	.99885	.06540	.99786	.08281	.99657	15
46	.01338	.99991	.03083	.99952	.04827	.99883	.06569	.99784	.08310	.99654	14
47	.01367	.99991	.03112	.99952	.04856	.99882	.06598	.99782	.08339	.99652	13
48	.01396	.99990	.03141	.99951	.04885	.99881	.06627	.99780	.08368	.99649	12
49	.01425	.99990	.03170	.99950	.04914	.99879	.06656	.99778	.08397	.99647	11
50	.01454	.99989	.03199	.99949	.04943	.99878	.06685	.99776	.08426	.99644	10
51	.01483	.99989	.03228	.99948	.04972	.99876	.06714	.99774	.08455	.99642	9
52	.01513	.99989	.03257	.99947	.05001	.99875	.06743	.99772	.08484	.99639	8
53	.01542	.99988	.03286	.99946	.05030	.99873	.06773	.99770	.08513	.99637	7
54	.01571	.99988	.03316	.99945	.05059	.99872	.06802	.99768	.08542	.99635	6
55	.01600	.99987	.03345	.99944	.05088	.99870	.06831	.99766	.08571	.99632	5
56	.01629	.99987	.03374	.99943	.05117	.99869	.06860	.99764	.08600	.99630	4
57	.01658	.99986	.03403	.99942	.05146	.99867	.06889	.99762	.08629	.99627	3
58	.01687	.99986	.03432	.99941	.05175	.99866	.06918	.99760	.08658	.99625	2
59	.01716	.99985	.03461	.99940	.05205	.99864	.06947	.99758	.08687	.99622	1
60	.01745	.99985	.03490	.99939	.05234	.99863	.06976	.99756	.08716	.99619	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	89°		88°		87°		86°		85°		

′	5°		6°		7°		8°		9°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.08716	.99619	.10453	.99452	.12187	.99255	.13917	.99027	.15643	.98769	60
1	.08745	.99617	.10482	.99449	.12216	.99251	.13946	.99023	.15672	.98764	59
2	.08774	.99614	.10511	.99446	.12245	.99248	.13975	.99019	.15701	.98760	58
3	.08803	.99612	.10540	.99443	.12274	.99244	.14004	.99015	.15730	.98755	57
4	.08831	.99609	.10569	.99440	.12302	.99240	.14033	.99011	.15758	.98751	56
5	.08860	.99607	.10597	.99437	.12331	.99237	.14061	.99006	.15787	.98746	55
6	.08889	.99604	.10626	.99434	.12360	.99233	.14090	.99002	.15816	.98741	54
7	.08918	.99602	.10655	.99431	.12389	.99230	.14119	.98998	.15845	.98737	53
8	.08947	.99599	.10684	.99428	.12418	.99226	.14148	.98994	.15873	.98732	52
9	.08976	.99596	.10713	.99424	.12447	.99222	.14177	.98990	.15902	.98728	51
10	.09005	.99594	.10742	.99421	.12476	.99219	.14205	.98986	.15931	.98723	50
11	.09034	.99591	.10771	.99418	.12504	.99215	.14234	.98982	.15959	.98718	49
12	.09063	.99588	.10800	.99415	.12533	.99211	.14263	.98978	.15988	.98714	48
13	.09092	.99586	.10829	.99412	.12562	.99208	.14292	.98973	.16017	.98709	47
14	.09121	.99583	.10858	.99409	.12591	.99204	.14320	.98969	.16046	.98704	46
15	.09150	.99580	.10887	.99406	.12620	.99200	.14349	.98965	.16074	.98700	45
16	.09179	.99578	.10916	.99402	.12649	.99197	.14378	.98961	.16103	.98695	44
17	.09208	.99575	.10945	.99399	.12678	.99193	.14407	.98957	.16132	.98690	43
18	.09237	.99572	.10973	.99396	.12706	.99189	.14436	.98953	.16160	.98686	42
19	.09266	.99570	.11002	.99393	.12735	.99186	.14464	.98948	.16189	.98681	41
20	.09295	.99567	.11031	.99390	.12764	.99182	.14493	.98944	.16218	.98676	40
21	.09324	.99564	.11060	.99386	.12793	.99178	.14522	.98940	.16246	.98671	39
22	.09353	.99562	.11089	.99383	.12822	.99175	.14551	.98936	.16275	.98667	38
23	.09382	.99559	.11118	.99380	.12851	.99171	.14580	.98931	.16304	.98662	37
24	.09411	.99556	.11147	.99377	.12880	.99167	.14608	.98927	.16333	.98657	36
25	.09440	.99553	.11176	.99374	.12908	.99163	.14637	.98923	.16361	.98652	35
26	.09469	.99551	.11205	.99370	.12937	.99160	.14666	.98919	.16390	.98648	34
27	.09498	.99548	.11234	.99367	.12966	.99156	.14695	.98914	.16419	.98643	33
28	.09527	.99545	.11263	.99364	.12995	.99152	.14723	.98910	.16447	.98638	32
29	.09556	.99542	.11291	.99360	.13024	.99148	.14752	.98906	.16476	.98633	31
30	.09585	.99540	.11320	.99357	.13053	.99144	.14781	.98902	.16505	.98629	30
31	.09614	.99537	.11349	.99354	.13081	.99141	.14810	.98897	.16533	.98624	29
32	.09642	.99534	.11378	.99351	.13110	.99137	.14838	.98893	.16562	.98619	28
33	.09671	.99531	.11407	.99347	.13139	.99133	.14867	.98889	.16591	.98614	27
34	.09700	.99528	.11436	.99344	.13168	.99129	.14896	.98884	.16620	.98609	26
35	.09729	.99526	.11465	.99341	.13197	.99125	.14925	.98880	.16648	.98604	25
36	.09758	.99523	.11494	.99337	.13226	.99122	.14954	.98876	.16677	.98600	24
37	.09787	.99520	.11523	.99334	.13254	.99118	.14982	.98871	.16706	.98595	23
38	.09816	.99517	.11552	.99331	.13283	.99114	.15011	.98867	.16734	.98590	22
39	.09845	.99514	.11580	.99327	.13312	.99110	.15040	.98863	.16763	.98585	21
40	.09874	.99511	.11609	.99324	.13341	.99106	.15069	.98858	.16792	.98580	20
41	.09903	.99508	.11638	.99320	.13370	.99102	.15097	.98854	.16820	.98575	19
42	.09932	.99506	.11667	.99317	.13399	.99098	.15126	.98849	.16849	.98570	18
43	.09961	.99503	.11696	.99314	.13427	.99094	.15155	.98845	.16878	.98565	17
44	.09990	.99500	.11725	.99310	.13456	.99091	.15184	.98841	.16906	.98561	16
45	.10019	.99497	.11754	.99307	.13485	.99087	.15212	.98836	.16935	.98556	15
46	.10048	.99494	.11783	.99303	.13514	.99083	.15241	.98832	.16964	.98551	14
47	.10077	.99491	.11812	.99300	.13543	.99079	.15270	.98827	.16992	.98546	13
48	.10106	.99488	.11840	.99297	.13572	.99075	.15299	.98823	.17021	.98541	12
49	.10135	.99485	.11869	.99293	.13600	.99071	.15327	.98818	.17050	.98536	11
50	.10164	.99482	.11898	.99290	.13629	.99067	.15356	.98814	.17078	.98531	10
51	.10192	.99479	.11927	.99286	.13658	.99063	.15385	.98809	.17107	.98526	9
52	.10221	.99476	.11956	.99283	.13687	.99059	.15414	.98805	.17136	.98521	8
53	.10250	.99473	.11985	.99279	.13716	.99055	.15442	.98800	.17164	.98516	7
54	.10279	.99470	.12014	.99276	.13744	.99051	.15471	.98796	.17193	.98511	6
55	.10308	.99467	.12043	.99272	.13773	.99047	.15500	.98791	.17222	.98506	5
56	.10337	.99464	.12071	.99269	.13802	.99043	.15529	.98787	.17250	.98501	4
57	.10366	.99461	.12100	.99265	.13831	.99039	.15557	.98782	.17279	.98496	3
58	.10395	.99458	.12129	.99262	.13860	.99035	.15586	.98778	.17308	.98491	2
59	.10424	.99455	.12158	.99258	.13889	.99031	.15615	.98773	.17336	.98486	1
60	.10453	.99452	.12187	.99255	.13917	.99027	.15643	.98769	.17365	.98481	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	84°		83°		82°		81°		80°		

′	10°		11°		12°		13°		14°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.17365	.98481	.19081	.98163	.20791	.97815	.22495	.97437	.24192	.97030	60
1	.17393	.98476	.19109	.98157	.20820	.97809	.22523	.97430	.24220	.97023	59
2	.17422	.98471	.19138	.98152	.20848	.97803	.22552	.97424	.24249	.97015	58
3	.17451	.98466	.19167	.98146	.20877	.97797	.22580	.97417	.24277	.97008	57
4	.17479	.98461	.19195	.98140	.20905	.97791	.22608	.97411	.24305	.97001	56
5	.17508	.98455	.19224	.98135	.20933	.97784	.22637	.97404	.24333	.96994	55
6	.17537	.98450	.19252	.98129	.20962	.97778	.22665	.97398	.24362	.96987	54
7	.17565	.98445	.19281	.98124	.20990	.97772	.22693	.97391	.24390	.96980	53
8	.17594	.98440	.19309	.98118	.21019	.97766	.22722	.97384	.24418	.96973	52
9	.17623	.98435	.19338	.98112	.21047	.97760	.22750	.97378	.24446	.96966	51
10	.17651	.98430	.19366	.98107	.21076	.97754	.22778	.97371	.24474	.96959	50
11	.17680	.98425	.19395	.98101	.21104	.97748	.22807	.97365	.24503	.96952	49
12	.17708	.98420	.19423	.98096	.21132	.97742	.22835	.97358	.24531	.96945	48
13	.17737	.98414	.19452	.98090	.21161	.97735	.22863	.97351	.24559	.96937	47
14	.17766	.98409	.19481	.98084	.21189	.97729	.22892	.97345	.24587	.96930	46
15	.17794	.98404	.19509	.98079	.21218	.97723	.22920	.97338	.24615	.96923	45
16	.17823	.98399	.19538	.98073	.21246	.97717	.22948	.97331	.24644	.96916	44
17	.17852	.98394	.19566	.98067	.21275	.97711	.22977	.97325	.24672	.96909	43
18	.17880	.98389	.19595	.98061	.21303	.97705	.23005	.97318	.24700	.96902	42
19	.17909	.98383	.19623	.98056	.21331	.97698	.23033	.97311	.24728	.96894	41
20	.17937	.98378	.19652	.98050	.21360	.97692	.23062	.97304	.24756	.96887	40
21	.17966	.98373	.19680	.98044	.21388	.97686	.23090	.97298	.24784	.96880	39
22	.17995	.98368	.19709	.98039	.21417	.97680	.23118	.97291	.24813	.96873	38
23	.18023	.98362	.19737	.98033	.21445	.97673	.23146	.97284	.24841	.96866	37
24	.18052	.98357	.19766	.98027	.21474	.97667	.23175	.97278	.24869	.96858	36
25	.18081	.98352	.19794	.98021	.21502	.97661	.23203	.97271	.24897	.96851	35
26	.18109	.98347	.19823	.98016	.21530	.97655	.23231	.97264	.24925	.96844	34
27	.18138	.98341	.19851	.98010	.21559	.97648	.23260	.97257	.24954	.96837	33
28	.18166	.98336	.19880	.98004	.21587	.97642	.23288	.97251	.24982	.96829	32
29	.18195	.98331	.19908	.97998	.21616	.97636	.23316	.97244	.25010	.96822	31
30	.18224	.98325	.19937	.97992	.21644	.97630	.23345	.97237	.25038	.96815	30
31	.18252	.98320	.19965	.97987	.21672	.97623	.23373	.97230	.25066	.96807	29
32	.18281	.98315	.19994	.97981	.21701	.97617	.23401	.97223	.25094	.96800	28
33	.18309	.98310	.20022	.97975	.21729	.97611	.23429	.97217	.25122	.96793	27
34	.18338	.98304	.20051	.97969	.21758	.97604	.23458	.97210	.25151	.96786	26
35	.18367	.98299	.20079	.97963	.21786	.97598	.23486	.97203	.25179	.96778	25
36	.18395	.98294	.20108	.97958	.21814	.97592	.23514	.97196	.25207	.96771	24
37	.18424	.98288	.20136	.97952	.21843	.97585	.23542	.97189	.25235	.96764	23
38	.18452	.98283	.20165	.97946	.21871	.97579	.23571	.97182	.25263	.96756	22
39	.18481	.98277	.20193	.97940	.21899	.97573	.23599	.97176	.25291	.96749	21
40	.18509	.98272	.20222	.97934	.21928	.97566	.23627	.97169	.25320	.96742	20
41	.18538	.98267	.20250	.97928	.21956	.97560	.23656	.97162	.25348	.96734	19
42	.18567	.98261	.20279	.97922	.21985	.97553	.23684	.97155	.25376	.96727	18
43	.18595	.98256	.20307	.97916	.22013	.97547	.23712	.97148	.25404	.96719	17
44	.18624	.98250	.20336	.97910	.22041	.97541	.23740	.97141	.25432	.96712	16
45	.18652	.98245	.20364	.97905	.22070	.97534	.23769	.97134	.25460	.96705	15
46	.18681	.98240	.20393	.97899	.22098	.97528	.23797	.97127	.25488	.96697	14
47	.18710	.98234	.20421	.97893	.22126	.97521	.23825	.97120	.25516	.96690	13
48	.18738	.98229	.20450	.97887	.22155	.97515	.23853	.97113	.25545	.96682	12
49	.18767	.98223	.20478	.97881	.22183	.97508	.23882	.97106	.25573	.96675	11
50	.18795	.98218	.20507	.97875	.22212	.97502	.23910	.97100	.25601	.96667	10
51	.18824	.98212	.20535	.97869	.22240	.97496	.23938	.97093	.25629	.96660	9
52	.18852	.98207	.20563	.97863	.22268	.97489	.23966	.97086	.25657	.96653	8
53	.18881	.98201	.20592	.97857	.22297	.97483	.23995	.97079	.25685	.96645	7
54	.18910	.98196	.20620	.97851	.22325	.97476	.24023	.97072	.25713	.96638	6
55	.18938	.98190	.20649	.97845	.22353	.97470	.24051	.97065	.25741	.96630	5
56	.18967	.98185	.20677	.97839	.22382	.97463	.24079	.97058	.25769	.96623	4
57	.18995	.98179	.20706	.97833	.22410	.97457	.24108	.97051	.25798	.96615	3
58	.19024	.98174	.20734	.97827	.22438	.97450	.24136	.97044	.25826	.96608	2
59	.19052	.98168	.20763	.97821	.22467	.97444	.24164	.97037	.25854	.96600	1
60	.19081	.98163	.20791	.97815	.22495	.97437	.24192	.97030	.25882	.96593	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	
	79°		78°		77°		76°		75°		

′	15°		16°		17°		18°		19°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.25882	.96593	.27564	.96126	.29237	.95630	.30902	.95106	.32557	.94552	60
1	.25910	.96585	.27592	.96118	.29265	.95622	.30929	.95097	.32584	.94542	59
2	.25938	.96578	.27620	.96110	.29293	.95613	.30957	.95088	.32612	.94533	58
3	.25966	.96570	.27648	.96102	.29321	.95605	.30985	.95079	.32639	.94523	57
4	.25994	.96562	.27676	.96094	.29348	.95596	.31012	.95070	.32667	.94514	56
5	.26022	.96555	.27704	.96086	.29376	.95588	.31040	.95061	.32694	.94504	55
6	.26050	.96547	.27731	.96078	.29404	.95579	.31068	.95052	.32722	.94495	54
7	.26079	.96540	.27759	.96070	.29432	.95571	.31095	.95043	.32749	.94485	53
8	.26107	.96532	.27787	.96062	.29460	.95562	.21123	.95033	.32777	.94476	52
9	.26135	.96524	.27815	.96054	.29487	.95554	.31151	.95024	.32804	.94466	51
10	.26163	.96517	.27843	.96046	.29515	.95545	.31178	.95015	.32832	.94457	50
11	.26191	.96509	.27871	.96037	.29543	.95536	.31206	.95006	.32859	.94447	49
12	.26219	.96502	.27899	.96029	.29571	.95528	.31233	.94997	.32887	.94438	48
13	.26247	.96494	.27927	.96021	.29599	.95519	.31261	.94988	.32914	.94428	47
14	.26275	.96486	.27955	.96013	.29626	.95511	.31289	.94979	.32942	.94418	46
15	.26303	.96479	.27983	.96005	.29654	.95502	.31316	.94970	.32969	.94409	45
16	.26331	.96471	.28011	.95997	.29682	.95493	.31344	.94961	.32997	.94399	44
17	.26359	.96463	.28039	.95989	.29710	.95485	.31372	.94952	.33024	.94390	43
18	.26387	.96456	.28067	.95981	.29737	.95476	.31399	.94943	.33051	.94380	42
19	.26415	.96448	.28095	.95972	.29765	.95467	.31427	.94933	.33079	.94370	41
20	.26443	.96440	.28123	.95964	.29793	.95459	.31454	.94924	.33106	.94361	40
21	.26471	.96433	.28150	.95956	.29821	.95450	.31482	.94915	.33134	.94351	39
22	.26500	.96425	.28178	.95948	.29849	.95441	.31510	.94906	.33161	.94342	38
23	.26528	.96417	.28206	.95940	.29876	.95433	.31537	.94897	.33189	.94332	37
24	.26556	.96410	.28234	.95931	.29904	.95424	.31565	.94888	.33216	.94322	36
25	.26584	.96402	.28262	.95923	.29932	.95415	.31593	.94878	.33244	.94313	35
26	.26612	.96394	.28290	.95915	.29960	.95407	.31620	.94869	.33271	.94303	34
27	.26640	.96386	.28318	.95907	.29987	.95398	.31648	.94860	.33298	.94293	33
28	.26668	.96379	.28346	.95898	.30015	.95389	.31675	.94851	.33326	.94284	32
29	.26696	.96371	.28374	.95890	.30043	.95380	.31703	.94842	.33353	.94274	31
30	.26724	.96363	.28402	.95882	.30071	.95372	.31730	.94832	.33381	.94264	30
31	.26752	.96355	.28429	.95874	.30098	.95363	.31758	.94823	.33408	.94254	29
32	.26780	.96347	.28457	.95865	.30126	.95354	.31786	.94814	.33436	.94245	28
33	.26808	.96340	.28485	.95857	.30154	.95345	.31813	.94805	.33463	.94235	27
34	.26836	.96332	.28513	.95849	.30182	.95337	.31841	.94795	.33490	.94225	26
35	.26864	.96324	.28541	.95841	.30209	.95328	.31868	.94786	.33518	.94215	25
36	.26892	.96316	.28569	.95832	.30237	.95319	.31896	.94777	.33545	.94206	24
37	.26920	.96308	.28597	.95824	.30265	.95310	.31923	.94768	.33573	.94196	23
38	.26948	.96301	.28625	.95816	.30292	.95301	.31951	.94758	.33600	.94186	22
39	.26976	.96293	.28652	.95807	.30320	.95293	.31979	.94749	.33627	.94176	21
40	.27004	.96285	.28680	.95799	.30348	.95284	.32006	.94740	.33655	.94167	20
41	.27032	.96277	.28708	.95791	.30376	.95275	.32034	.94730	.33682	.94157	19
42	.27060	.96269	.28736	.95782	.30403	.95266	.32061	.94721	.33710	.94147	18
43	.27088	.96261	.28764	.95774	.30431	.95257	.32089	.94712	.33737	.94137	17
44	.27116	.96253	.28792	.95766	.30459	.95248	.32116	.94702	.33764	.94127	16
45	.27144	.96246	.28820	.95757	.30486	.95240	.32144	.94693	.33792	.94118	15
46	.27172	.96238	.28847	.95749	.30514	.95231	.32171	.94684	.33819	.94108	14
47	.27200	.96230	.28875	.95740	.30542	.95222	.32199	.94674	.33846	.94098	13
48	.27228	.96222	.28903	.95732	.30570	.95213	.32227	.94665	.33874	.94088	12
49	.27256	.96214	.28931	.95724	.30597	.95204	.32254	.94656	.33901	.94078	11
50	.27284	.96206	.28959	.95715	.30625	.95195	.32282	.94646	.33929	.94068	10
51	.27312	.96198	.28987	.95707	.30653	.95186	.32309	.94637	.33956	.94058	9
52	.27340	.96190	.29015	.95698	.30680	.95177	.32337	.94627	.33983	.94049	8
53	.27368	.96182	.29042	.95690	.30708	.95168	.32364	.94618	.34011	.94039	7
54	.27396	.96174	.29070	.95681	.30736	.95159	.32392	.94609	.34038	.94029	6
55	.27424	.96166	.29098	.95673	.30763	.95150	.32419	.94599	.34065	.94019	5
56	.27452	.96158	.29126	.95664	.30791	.95142	.32447	.94590	.34093	.94009	4
57	.27480	.96150	.29154	.95656	.30819	.95133	.32474	.94580	.34120	.93999	3
58	.27508	.96142	.29182	.95647	.30846	.95124	.32502	.94571	.34147	.93989	2
59	.27536	.96134	.29209	.95639	.30874	.95115	.32529	.94561	.34175	.93979	1
60	.27564	.96126	.29237	.95630	.30902	.95106	.32557	.94552	.34202	.93969	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	74°		73°		72°		71°		70°		

NATURAL SINES AND COSINES.

′	20°		21°		22°		23°		24°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.34202	.93969	.35837	.93358	.37461	.92718	.39073	.92050	.40674	.91355	60
1	.34229	.93959	.35864	.93348	.37488	.92707	.39100	.92039	.40700	.91343	59
2	.34257	.93949	.35891	.93337	.37515	.92697	.39127	.92028	.40727	.91331	58
3	.34284	.93939	.35918	.93327	.37542	.92686	.39153	.92016	.40753	.91319	57
4	.34311	.93929	.35945	.93316	.37569	.92675	.39180	.92005	.40780	.91307	56
5	.34339	.93919	.35973	.93306	.37595	.92664	.39207	.91994	.40806	.91295	55
6	.34366	.93909	.36000	.93295	.37622	.92653	.39234	.91982	.40833	.91283	54
7	.34393	.93899	.36027	.93285	.37649	.92642	.39260	.91971	.40860	.91272	53
8	.34421	.93889	.36054	.93274	.37676	.92631	.39287	.91959	.40886	.91260	52
9	.34448	.93879	.36081	.93264	.37703	.92620	.39314	.91948	.40913	.91248	51
10	.34475	.93869	.36108	.93253	.37730	.92609	.39341	.91936	.40939	.91236	50
11	.34503	.93859	.36135	.93243	.37757	.92598	.39367	.91925	.40966	.91224	49
12	.34530	.93849	.36162	.93232	.37784	.92587	.39394	.91914	.40992	.91212	48
13	.34557	.93839	.36190	.93222	.37811	.92576	.39421	.91902	.41019	.91200	47
14	.34584	.93829	.36217	.93211	.37838	.92565	.39448	.91391	.41045	.91188	46
15	.34612	.93819	.36244	.93201	.37865	.92554	.39474	.91879	.41072	.91176	45
16	.34639	.93809	.36271	.93190	.37892	.92543	.39501	.91868	.41098	.91164	44
17	.34666	.93799	.36298	.93180	.37919	.92532	.39528	.91856	.41125	.91152	43
18	.34694	.93789	.36325	.93169	.37946	.92521	.39555	.91845	.41151	.91140	42
19	.34721	.93779	.36352	.93159	.37973	.92510	.39581	.91833	.41178	.91128	41
20	.34748	.93769	.36379	.93148	.37999	.92499	.39608	.91822	.41204	.91116	40
21	.34775	.93759	.36406	.93137	.38026	.92488	.39635	.91810	.41231	.91104	39
22	.34803	.93748	.36434	.93127	.38053	.92477	.39661	.91799	.41257	.91092	38
23	.34830	.93738	.36461	.93116	.38080	.92466	.39688	.91787	.41284	.91080	37
24	.34857	.93728	.36488	.93106	.38107	.92455	.39715	.91775	.41310	.91068	36
25	.34884	.93718	.36515	.93095	.38134	.92444	.39741	.91764	.41237	.91056	35
26	.34912	.93708	.36542	.93084	.38161	.92432	.39768	.91752	.41363	.91044	34
27	.34939	.93698	.36569	.93074	.38188	.92421	.39795	.91741	.41390	.91032	33
28	.34966	.93688	.36596	.93063	.38215	.92410	.39822	.91729	.41416	.91020	32
29	.34993	.93677	.36623	.93052	.38241	.92399	.39848	.91718	.41443	.91008	31
30	.35021	.93667	.36650	.93042	.38268	.92388	.39875	.91706	.41469	.90996	30
31	.35048	.93657	.36677	.93031	.38295	.92377	.39902	.91694	.41496	.90984	29
32	.35075	.93647	.36704	.93020	.38322	.92366	.39928	.91683	.41522	.90972	28
33	.35102	.93637	.36731	.93010	.38349	.92355	.39955	.91671	.41549	.90960	27
34	.35130	.93626	.36758	.92999	.38376	.92343	.39982	.91660	.41575	.90948	26
35	.35157	.93616	.36785	.92988	.38403	.92332	.40008	.91648	.41602	.90936	25
36	.35184	.93606	.36812	.92978	.38430	.92321	.40035	.91636	.41628	.90924	24
37	.35211	.93596	.36839	.92967	.38456	.92310	.40062	.91625	.41655	.90911	23
38	.35239	.93585	.36867	.92956	.38483	.92299	.40088	.91613	.41681	.90899	22
39	.35266	.93575	.36894	.92945	.38510	.92287	.40115	.91601	.41707	.90887	21
40	.35293	.93565	.36921	.92935	.38537	.92276	.40141	.91590	.41734	.90875	20
41	.35320	.92555	.36948	.92924	.38564	.92265	.40168	.91578	.41760	.90863	19
42	.35347	.93544	.36975	.92913	.38591	.92254	.40195	.91566	.41787	.90851	18
43	.35375	.93534	.37002	.92902	.38617	.92243	.40221	.91555	.41813	.90839	17
44	.35402	.93524	.37029	.92892	.38644	.92231	.40248	.91543	.41840	.90826	16
45	.35429	.93514	.37056	.92881	.38671	.92220	.40275	.91531	.41866	.90814	15
46	.35456	.93503	.37083	.92870	.38698	.92209	.40301	.91519	.41892	.90802	14
47	.35484	.93493	.37110	.92859	.38725	.92198	.40328	.91508	.41919	.90790	13
48	.35511	.93483	.37137	.92849	.38752	.92186	.40355	.91496	.41945	.90778	12
49	.35538	.93472	.37164	.92838	.38778	.92175	.40381	.91484	.41972	.90766	11
50	.35565	.93462	.37191	.92827	.38805	.92164	.40408	.91472	.41998	.90753	10
51	.35592	.93452	.37218	.92816	.38832	.92152	.40434	.91461	.42024	.90741	9
52	.35619	.93441	.37245	.92805	.38859	.92141	.40461	.91449	.42051	.90729	8
53	.35647	.93431	.37272	.92794	.38886	.92130	.40488	.91437	.42077	.90717	7
54	.35674	.93420	.37299	.92784	.38912	.92119	.40514	.91425	.42104	.90704	6
55	.35701	.93410	.37326	.92773	.38939	.92107	.40541	.91414	.42130	.90692	5
56	.35728	.93400	.37353	.92762	.38966	.92096	.40567	.91402	.42156	.90680	4
57	.35755	.93389	.37380	.92751	.38993	.92085	.40594	.91390	.42183	.90668	3
58	.35782	.93379	.37407	.92740	.39020	.92073	.40621	.91378	.42209	.90655	2
59	.35810	.93368	.37434	.92729	.39046	.92062	.40647	.91366	.42235	.90643	1
60	.35837	.93358	.37461	.92718	.39073	.92050	.40674	.91355	.42262	.90631	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	
	69°		68°		67°		66°		65°		

′	25°		26°		27°		28°		29°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.42262	.90631	.43837	.89879	.45399	.89101	.46947	.88295	.48481	.87462	60
1	.42288	.90618	.43863	.89867	.45425	.89087	.46973	.88281	.48506	.87448	59
2	.42315	.90606	.43889	.89854	.45451	.89074	.46999	.88267	.48532	.87434	58
3	.42341	.90594	.43916	.89841	.45477	.89061	.47024	.88254	.48557	.87420	57
4	.42367	.90582	.43942	.89828	.45503	.89048	.47050	.88240	.48583	.87406	56
5	.42394	.90569	.43968	.89816	.45529	.89035	.47076	.88226	.48608	.87391	55
6	.42420	.90557	.43994	.89803	.45554	.89021	.47101	.88213	.48634	.87377	54
7	.42416	.90545	.44020	.89790	.45580	.89008	.47127	.88199	.48659	.87363	53
8	.42473	.90532	.44046	.89777	.45606	.88995	.47153	.88185	.48684	.87349	52
9	.42499	.90520	.44072	.89764	.45632	.88981	.47178	.88172	.48710	.87335	51
10	.42525	.90507	.44098	.89752	.45658	.88968	.47204	.88158	.48735	.87321	50
11	.42552	.90495	.44124	.89739	.45684	.88955	.47229	.88144	.48761	.87306	49
12	.42578	.90483	.44151	.89726	.45710	.88942	.47255	.88130	.48786	.87292	48
13	.42604	.90470	.44177	.89713	.45736	.88928	.47281	.88117	.48811	.87278	47
14	.42631	.90458	.44203	.89700	.45762	.88915	.47306	.88103	.48837	.87264	46
15	.42657	.90446	.44229	.89687	.45787	.88902	.47332	.88089	.48862	.87250	45
16	.42683	.90433	.44255	.89674	.45813	.88888	.47358	.88075	.48888	.87235	44
17	.42709	.90421	.44281	.89662	.45839	.88875	.47383	.88062	.48913	.87221	43
18	.42736	.90408	.44307	.89649	.45865	.88862	.47409	.88048	.48938	.87207	42
19	.42762	.90396	.44333	.89636	.45891	.88848	.47434	.88034	.48964	.87193	41
20	.42788	.90383	.44359	.89623	.45917	.88835	.47460	.88020	.48989	.87178	40
21	.42815	.90371	.44385	.89610	.45942	.88822	.47486	.88006	.49014	.87164	39
22	.42841	.90358	.44411	.89597	.45968	.88808	.47511	.87993	.49040	.87150	38
23	.42867	.90346	.44437	.89584	.45994	.88795	.47537	.87979	.49065	.87136	37
24	.42894	.90334	.44464	.89571	.46020	.88782	.47562	.87965	.49090	.87121	36
25	.42920	.90321	.44490	.89558	.46046	.88768	.47588	.87951	.49116	.87107	35
26	.42946	.90309	.44516	.89545	.46072	.88755	.47614	.87937	.49141	.87093	34
27	.42972	.90296	.44542	.89532	.46097	.88741	.47639	.87923	.49166	.87079	33
28	.42999	.90284	.44568	.89519	.46123	.88728	.47665	.87909	.49192	.87064	32
29	.43025	.90271	.44594	.89506	.46149	.88715	.47690	.87896	.49217	.87050	31
30	43051	.90259	.44620	.89493	.46175	88701	.47716	.87882	.49242	87026	30
31	.43077	.90246	.44646	.89480	.46201	.88688	.47741	.87868	.49268	.87021	29
32	.43104	.90233	.44672	.89467	.46226	.88674	.47767	.87854	.49293	.87007	28
33	.43130	.90221	.44698	.89454	.46252	.88661	.47793	.87840	.49318	.86993	27
34	.43156	.90208	.44724	.89441	.46278	.88647	.47818	.87826	.49344	.86978	26
35	.43182	.90196	.44750	.89428	.46304	.88634	.47844	.87812	.49369	.86964	25
36	.43209	.90183	.44776	.89415	.46330	.88620	.47869	.87798	.49394	.86949	24
37	.43235	.90171	.44802	.89402	.46355	.88607	.47895	.87784	.49419	.86935	23
38	.43261	.90158	.44828	.89389	.46381	.88593	.47920	.87770	.49445	.86921	22
39	.43287	.90146	.44854	.89376	.46407	.88580	.47946	.87756	.49470	.86906	21
40	.43313	.90133	.44880	.89363	.46433	.88566	.47971	.87743	.49495	.86892	20
41	.43340	.90120	.44906	.89350	.46458	.88553	.47997	.87729	.49521	.86878	19
42	.43366	.90108	.44932	.89337	.46484	.88539	.48022	.87715	.49546	.86863	18
43	.43392	.90095	.44958	.89324	.46510	.88526	.48048	.87701	.49571	.86849	17
44	.43418	.90082	.44984	.89311	.46536	.88512	.48073	.87687	.49596	.86834	16
45	.43445	.90070	.45010	.89298	.46561	.88499	.48099	.87673	.49622	.86820	15
46	.43471	.90057	.45036	.89285	.46587	.88485	.48124	.87659	.49647	.86805	14
47	.43497	.90045	.45062	.89272	.46613	.88472	.48150	.87645	.49672	.86791	13
48	.43523	.90032	.45088	.89259	.46639	.88458	.48175	.87631	.49697	.86777	12
49	.43549	.90019	.45114	.89245	.46664	.88445	.48201	.87617	.49723	.86762	11
50	.43575	.90007	.45140	.89232	.46690	.88431	.48226	.87603	.49748	.86748	10
51	.43602	.89994	.45166	.89219	.46716	.88417	.48252	.87589	.49773	.86733	9
52	.43628	.89981	.45192	.89206	.46742	.88404	.48277	.87575	.49798	.86719	8
53	.43654	.89968	.45218	.89193	.46767	.88390	.48303	.87561	.49824	.86704	7
54	.43680	.89956	.45243	.89180	.46793	.88377	.48328	.87546	.49849	.86690	6
55	.43706	.89943	.45269	.89167	.46819	.88363	.48354	.87532	.49874	.86675	5
56	.43733	.89930	.45295	.89153	.46844	.88349	.48379	.87518	.49899	.86661	4
57	.43759	.89918	.45321	.89140	.46870	.88336	.48405	.87504	.49924	.86646	3
58	.43785	.89905	.45347	.89127	.46896	.88322	.48430	.87490	.49950	.86632	2
59	.43811	.89892	.45373	.89114	.46921	.88308	.48456	.87476	.49975	.86617	1
60	.43837	.89879	.45399	.89101	.46947	.88295	.48481	.87462	.50000	.86603	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	64°		63°		62°		61°		60°		

′	30°		31°		32°		33°		34°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.50000	.86603	.51504	.85717	.52992	.84805	.54464	.83867	.55919	.82904	60
1	.50025	.86588	.51529	.85702	.53017	.84789	.54488	.83851	.55943	.82887	59
2	.50050	.86573	.51554	.85687	.53041	.84774	.54513	.83835	.55968	.82871	58
3	.50076	.86559	.51579	.85672	.53066	.84759	.54537	.83819	.55992	.82855	57
4	.50101	.86544	.51604	.85657	.53091	.84743	.54561	.83804	.56016	.82839	56
5	.50126	.86530	.51628	.85642	.53115	.84728	.54586	.83788	.56040	.82822	55
6	.50151	.86515	.51653	.85627	.53140	.84712	.54610	.83772	.56064	.82806	54
7	.50176	.86501	.51678	.85612	.53164	.84697	.54635	.83756	.56088	.82790	53
8	.50201	.86486	.51703	.85597	.53189	.84681	.54659	.83740	.56112	.82773	52
9	.50227	.86471	.51728	.85582	.53214	.84666	.54683	.83724	.56136	.82757	51
10	.50252	.86457	.51753	.85567	.53238	.84650	.54708	.83708	.56160	.82741	50
11	.50277	.86442	.51778	.85551	.53263	.84635	.54732	.83692	.56184	.82724	49
12	.50302	.86427	.51803	.85536	.53288	.84619	.54756	.83676	.56208	.82708	48
13	.50327	.86413	.51828	.85521	.53312	.84604	.54781	.83660	.56232	.82692	47
14	.50352	.86398	.51852	.85506	.53337	.84588	.54805	.83645	.56256	.82675	46
15	.50377	.86384	.51877	.85491	.53361	.84573	.54829	.83629	.56280	.82659	45
16	.50403	.86369	.51902	.85476	.53386	.84557	.54854	.83613	.56305	.82643	44
17	.50428	.86354	.51927	.85461	.53411	.84542	.54878	.83597	.56329	.82626	43
18	.50453	.86340	.51952	.85446	.53435	.84526	.54902	.83581	.56353	.82610	42
19	.50478	.86325	.51977	.85431	.53460	.84511	.54927	.83565	.56377	.82593	41
20	.50503	.86310	.52002	.85416	.53484	.84495	.54951	.83549	.56401	.82577	40
21	.50528	.86295	.52026	.85401	.53509	.84480	.54975	.83533	.56425	.82561	39
22	.50553	.86281	.52051	.85385	.53534	.84464	.54999	.83517	.56449	.82544	38
23	.50578	.86266	.52076	.85370	.53558	.84448	.55024	.83501	.56473	.82528	37
24	.50603	.86251	.52101	.85355	.53583	.84433	.55048	.83485	.56497	.82511	36
25	.50628	.86237	.52126	.85340	.53607	.84417	.55072	.83469	.56521	.82495	35
26	.50654	.86222	.52151	.85325	.53632	.84402	.55097	.83453	.56545	.82478	34
27	.50679	.86207	.52175	.85310	.53656	.84386	.55121	.83437	.56569	.82462	33
28	.50704	.86192	.52200	.85294	.53681	.84370	.55145	.83421	.56593	.82446	32
29	.50729	.86178	.52225	.85279	.53705	.84355	.55169	.83405	.56617	.82429	31
30	.50754	.86163	.52250	.85264	.53730	.84339	.55194	.83389	.56641	.82413	30
31	.50779	.86148	.52275	.85249	.53754	.84324	.55218	.83373	.56665	.82396	29
32	.50804	.86133	.52299	.85234	.53779	.84308	.55242	.83356	.56689	.82380	28
33	.50829	.86119	.52324	.85218	.53804	.84292	.55266	.83340	.56713	.82363	27
34	.50854	.86104	.52349	.85203	.53828	.84277	.55291	.83324	.56736	.82347	26
35	.50879	.86089	.52374	.85188	.53853	.84261	.55315	.83308	.56760	.82330	25
36	.50904	.86074	.52399	.85173	.53877	.84245	.55339	.83292	.56784	.82314	24
37	.50929	.86059	.52423	.85157	.53902	.84230	.55363	.83276	.56808	.82297	23
38	.50954	.86045	.52448	.85142	.53926	.84214	.55388	.83260	.56832	.82281	22
39	.50979	.86030	.52473	.85127	.53951	.84198	.55412	.83244	.56856	.82264	21
40	.51004	.86015	.52498	.85112	.53975	.84182	.55436	.83228	.56880	.82248	20
41	.51029	.86000	.52522	.85096	.54000	.84167	.55460	.83212	.56904	.82231	19
42	.51054	.85985	.52547	.85081	.54024	.84151	.55484	.83195	.56928	.82214	18
43	.51079	.85970	.52572	.85066	.54049	.84135	.55509	.83179	.56952	.82198	17
44	.51104	.85956	.52597	.85051	.54073	.84120	.55533	.83163	.56976	.82181	16
45	.51129	.85941	.52621	.85035	.54097	.84104	.55557	.83147	.57000	.82165	15
46	.51154	.85926	.52646	.85020	.54122	.84088	.55581	.83131	.57024	.82148	14
47	.51179	.85911	.52671	.85005	.54146	.84072	.55605	.83115	.57047	.82132	13
48	.51204	.85896	.52696	.84989	.54171	.84057	.55630	.83098	.57071	.82115	12
49	.51229	.85881	.52720	.84974	.54195	.84041	.55654	.83082	.57095	.82098	11
50	.51254	.85866	.52745	.84959	.54220	.84025	.55678	.83066	.57119	.82082	10
51	.51279	.85851	.52770	.84943	.54244	.84009	.55702	.83050	.57143	.82065	9
52	.51304	.85836	.52794	.84928	.54269	.83994	.55726	.83034	.57167	.82048	8
53	.51329	.85821	.52819	.84913	.54293	.83978	.55750	.83017	.57191	.82032	7
54	.51354	.85806	.52844	.84897	.54317	.83962	.55775	.83001	.57215	.82015	6
55	.51379	.85792	.52869	.84882	.54342	.83946	.55799	.82985	.57238	.81999	5
56	.51404	.85777	.52893	.84866	.54366	.83920	.55823	.82969	.57262	.81982	4
57	.51429	.85762	.52918	.84851	.54391	.83915	.55847	.82953	.57286	.81965	3
58	.51454	.85747	.52943	.84836	.54415	.83899	.55871	.82936	.57310	.81949	2
59	.51479	.85732	.52967	.84820	.54440	.83883	.55895	.82920	.57334	.81932	1
60	.51504	.85717	.52992	.84805	.54464	.83867	.55919	.82904	.57358	.81915	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	59°		58°		57°		56°		55°		

′	35°		36°		37°		38°		39°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.57358	.81915	.58779	.80902	.60182	.79864	.61566	.78801	.62932	.77715	60
1	.57381	.81899	.58802	.80885	.60205	.79846	.61589	.78783	.62955	.77696	59
2	.57405	.81882	.58826	.80867	.60228	.79829	.61612	.78765	.62977	.77678	58
3	.57429	.81865	.58849	.80850	.60251	.79811	.61635	.78747	.63000	.77660	57
4	.57453	.81848	.58873	.80833	.60274	.79793	.61658	.78729	.63022	.77641	56
5	.57477	.81832	.58896	.80816	.60298	.79776	.61681	.78711	.63045	.77623	55
6	.57501	.81815	.58920	.80799	.60321	.79758	.61704	.78694	.63068	.77605	54
7	.57524	.81798	.58943	.80782	.60344	.79741	.61726	.78676	.63090	.77586	53
8	.57518	.81782	.58967	.80765	.60367	.79723	.61749	.78658	.63113	.77568	52
9	.57572	.81765	.58990	.80748	.60390	.79706	.61772	.78640	.63135	.77550	51
10	.57596	.81748	.59014	.80730	.60414	.79688	.61795	.78622	.63158	.77531	50
11	.57619	.81731	.59037	.80713	.60437	.79671	.61818	.78604	.63180	.77513	40
12	.57643	.81714	.59061	.80696	.60460	.79653	.61841	.78586	.63203	.77494	48
13	.57667	.81698	.59084	.80679	.60483	.79635	.61864	.78568	.63225	.77476	47
14	.57691	.81681	.59108	.80662	.60506	.79618	.61887	.78550	.63248	.77458	46
15	.57715	.81664	.59131	.80644	.60529	.79600	.61909	.78532	.63271	.77439	45
16	.57738	.81647	.59154	.80627	.60553	.79583	.61932	.78514	.63293	.77421	44
17	.57762	.81631	.59178	.80610	.60576	.79565	.61955	.78496	.63316	.77402	43
18	.57786	.81614	.59201	.80593	.60599	.79547	.61978	.78478	.63338	.77384	42
19	.57810	.81597	.59225	.80576	.60622	.79530	.62001	.78460	.63361	.77366	41
20	.57833	.81580	.59248	.80558	.60645	.79512	.62024	.78442	.63383	.77347	40
21	.57857	.81563	.59272	.80541	.60668	.79494	.62046	.78424	.63406	.77329	39
22	.57881	.81546	.59295	.80524	.60691	.79477	.62069	.78405	.63428	.77310	38
23	.57904	.81530	.59318	.80507	.60714	.79459	.62092	.78387	.63451	.77292	37
24	.57928	.81513	.59342	.80489	.60738	.79441	.62115	.78369	.63473	.77273	36
25	.57952	.81496	.59365	.80472	.60761	.79424	.62138	.78351	.63496	.77255	35
26	.57976	.81479	.59389	.80455	.60784	.79406	.62160	.78333	.63518	.77236	34
27	.57999	.81462	.59412	.80438	.60807	.79388	.62183	.78315	.63540	.77218	33
28	.58023	.81445	.59436	.80420	.60830	.79371	.62206	.78297	.63563	.77199	32
29	.58047	.81428	.59459	.80403	.60853	.79353	.62229	.78279	.63585	.77181	31
30	.58070	.81412	.59482	.80386	.60876	.79335	.62251	.78261	.63608	.77162	30
31	.58094	.81395	.59506	.80368	.60899	.79318	.62274	.78243	.63630	.77144	29
32	.58118	.81378	.59529	.80351	.60922	.79300	.62297	.78225	.63653	.77125	28
33	.58141	.81361	.59552	.80334	.60945	.79282	.62320	.78206	.63675	.77107	27
34	.58165	.81344	.59576	.80316	.60968	.79264	.62342	.78188	.63698	.77088	26
35	.58189	.81327	.59599	.80299	.60991	.79247	.62365	.78170	.63720	.77070	25
36	.58212	.81310	.59622	.80282	.61015	.79229	.62388	.78152	.63742	.77051	24
37	.58236	.81293	.59646	.80264	.61038	.79211	.62411	.78134	.63765	.77033	23
38	.58260	.81276	.59669	.80247	.61061	.79193	.62433	.78116	.63787	.77014	22
39	.58283	.81259	.59693	.80230	.61084	.79176	.62456	.78098	.63810	.76996	21
40	.58307	.81242	.59716	.80212	.61107	.79158	.62479	.78079	.63832	.76977	20
41	.58330	.81225	.59739	.80195	.61130	.79140	.62502	.78061	.63854	.76959	19
42	.58354	.81208	.59763	.80178	.61153	.79122	.62524	.78043	.63877	.76940	18
43	.58378	.81191	.59786	.80160	.61176	.79105	.62547	.78025	.63899	.76921	17
44	.58401	.81174	.59809	.80143	.61199	.79087	.62570	.78007	.63922	.76903	16
45	.58425	.81157	.59832	.80125	.61222	.79069	.62592	.77988	.63944	.76884	15
46	.58449	.81140	.59856	.80108	.61245	.79051	.62615	.77970	.63966	.76866	14
47	.58472	.81123	.59879	.80091	.61268	.79033	.62638	.77952	.63989	.76847	13
48	.58496	.81106	.59902	.80073	.61291	.79016	.62660	.77934	.64011	.76828	12
49	.58519	.81089	.59926	.80056	.61314	.78998	.62683	.77916	.64033	.76810	11
50	.58543	.81072	.59949	.80038	.61337	.78980	.62706	.77897	.64056	.76791	10
51	.58567	.81055	.59972	.80021	.61360	.78962	.62728	.77879	.64078	.76772	9
52	.58590	.81038	.59995	.80003	.61383	.78944	.62751	.77861	.64100	.76754	8
53	.58614	.81021	.60019	.79986	.61406	.78926	.62774	.77843	.64123	.76735	7
54	.58637	.81004	.60042	.79968	.61429	.78908	.62796	.77824	.64145	.76717	6
55	.58661	.80987	.60065	.79951	.61451	.78891	.62819	.77806	.64167	.76698	5
56	.58684	.80970	.60089	.79934	.61474	.78873	.62842	.77788	.64190	.76679	4
57	.58708	.80953	.60112	.79916	.61497	.78855	.62864	.77769	.64212	.76661	3
58	.58731	.80936	.60135	.79899	.61520	.78837	.62887	.77751	.64234	.76642	2
59	.58755	.80919	.60158	.79881	.61543	.78819	.62909	.77733	.64256	.76623	1
60	.58779	.80902	.60182	.79864	.61566	.78801	.62932	.77715	.64279	.76604	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	54°		53°		52°		51°		50°		

′	40°		41°		42°		43°		44°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.64279	.76604	.65606	.75471	.66913	.74314	.68200	.73135	.69466	.71934	60
1	.64301	.76586	.65628	.75452	.66935	.74295	.68221	.73116	.69487	.71914	59
2	.64323	.76567	.65650	.75433	.66956	.74276	.68242	.73096	.69508	.71894	58
3	.64346	.76548	.65672	.75414	.66978	.74256	.68264	.73076	.69529	.71873	57
4	.64368	.76530	.65694	.75395	.66999	.74237	.68285	.73056	.69549	.71853	56
5	.64390	.76511	.65716	.75375	.67021	.74217	.68306	.73036	.69570	.71833	55
6	.64412	.76492	.65738	.75356	.67043	.74198	.68327	.73016	.69591	.71813	54
7	.64435	.76473	.65759	.75337	.67064	.74178	.68349	.72996	.69612	.71792	53
8	.64457	.76455	.65781	.75318	.67086	.74159	.68370	.72976	.69633	.71772	52
9	.64479	.76436	.65803	.75299	.67107	.74139	.68391	.72957	.69654	.71752	51
10	.64501	.76417	.65825	.75280	.67129	.74120	.68412	.72937	.69675	.71732	50
11	.64524	.76398	.65847	.75261	.67151	.74100	.68434	.72917	.69696	.71711	49
12	.64546	.76380	.65869	.75241	.67172	.74080	.68455	.72897	.69717	.71691	48
13	.64568	.76361	.65891	.75222	.67194	.74061	.68476	.72877	.69737	.71671	47
14	.64590	.76342	.65913	.75203	.67215	.74041	.68497	.72857	.69758	.71650	46
15	.64612	.76323	.65935	.75184	.67237	.74022	.68518	.72837	.69779	.71630	45
16	.64635	.76304	.65956	.75165	.67258	.74002	.68539	.72817	.69800	.71610	44
17	.64657	.76286	.65978	.75146	.67280	.73983	.68561	.72797	.69821	.71590	43
18	.64679	.76267	.66000	.75126	.67301	.73963	.68582	.72777	.69842	.71569	42
19	.64701	.76248	.66022	.75107	.67323	.73944	.68603	.72757	.69862	.71549	41
20	.64723	.76229	.66044	.75088	.67344	.73924	.68624	.72737	.69883	.71529	40
21	.64746	.76210	.66066	.75069	.67366	.73904	.68645	.72717	.69904	.71508	39
22	.64768	.76192	.66088	.75050	.67387	.73885	.68666	.72697	.69925	.71488	38
23	.64790	.76173	.66109	.75030	.67409	.73865	.68688	.72677	.69946	.71468	37
24	.64812	.76154	.66131	.75011	.67430	.73846	.68709	.72657	.69966	.71447	36
25	.64834	.76135	.66153	.74992	.67452	.73826	.68730	.72637	.69987	.71427	35
26	.64856	.76116	.66175	.74973	.67473	.73806	.68751	.72617	.70008	.71407	34
27	.64878	.76097	.66197	.74953	.67495	.73787	.68772	.72597	.70029	.71386	23
28	.64901	.76078	.66218	.74934	.67516	.73767	.68793	.72577	.70049	.71366	32
29	.64923	.76059	.66240	.74915	.67538	.73747	.68814	.72557	.70070	.71345	31
30	.64945	.76041	.66262	.74896	.67559	.73728	.68835	.72537	.70091	.71325	30
31	.64967	.76022	.66284	.74876	.67580	.73708	.68857	.72517	.70112	.71305	29
32	.64989	.76003	.66306	.74857	.67602	.73688	.68878	.72497	.70132	.71284	28
33	.65011	.75984	.66327	.74838	.67623	.73669	.68899	.72477	.70153	.71264	27
34	.65033	.75965	.66349	.74818	.67645	.73649	.68920	.72457	.70174	.71243	26
35	.65055	.75946	.66371	.74799	.67666	.73629	.68941	.72437	.70195	.71223	25
36	.65077	.75927	.66393	.74780	.67688	.73610	.68962	.72417	.70215	.71203	24
37	.65100	.75908	.66414	.74760	.67709	.73590	.68983	.72397	.70236	.71182	23
38	.65122	.75889	.66436	.74741	.67730	.73570	.69004	.72377	.70257	.71162	22
39	.65144	.75870	.66458	.74722	.67752	.73551	.69025	.72357	.70277	.71141	21
40	.65166	.75851	.66480	.74703	.67773	.73531	.69046	.72337	.70298	.71121	20
41	.65188	.75832	.66501	.74683	.67795	.73511	.69067	.72317	.70319	.71100	19
42	.65210	.75813	.66523	.74664	.67816	.73491	.69088	.72297	.70339	.71080	18
43	.65232	.75794	.66545	.74644	.67837	.73472	.69109	.72277	.70360	.71059	17
44	.65254	.75775	.66566	.74625	.67859	.73452	.69130	.72257	.70381	.71039	16
45	.65276	.75756	.66588	.74606	.67880	.73132	.69151	.72236	.70401	.71019	15
46	.65298	.75738	.66610	.74586	.67901	.73413	.69172	.72216	.70422	.70998	14
47	.65320	.75719	.66632	.74567	.67923	.73393	.69193	.72196	.70443	.70978	13
48	.65342	.75700	.66653	.74548	.67944	.73373	.69214	.72176	.70463	.70957	12
49	.65364	.75680	.66675	.74528	.67965	.73353	.69235	.72156	.70484	.70937	11
50	.65386	.75661	.66697	.74509	.67987	.73333	.69256	.72136	.70505	.70916	10
51	.65408	.75642	.66718	.74489	.68008	.73314	.69277	.72116	.70525	.70896	9
52	.65430	.75623	.66740	.74470	.68029	.73294	.69298	.72095	.70546	.70875	8
53	.65452	.75604	.66762	.74451	.68051	.73274	.69319	.72075	.70567	.70855	7
54	.65474	.75585	.66783	.74431	.68072	.73254	.69340	.72055	.70587	.70834	6
55	.65496	.75566	.66805	.74412	.68093	.73234	.69361	.72035	.70608	.70813	5
56	.65518	.75547	.66827	.74392	.68115	.73215	.69382	.72015	.70628	.70793	4
57	.65540	.75528	.66848	.74373	.68136	.73195	.69403	.71995	.70649	.70772	3
58	.65562	.75509	.66870	.74353	.68157	.73175	.69424	.71974	.70670	.70752	2
59	.65584	.75490	.66891	.74334	.68179	.73155	.69445	.71954	.70690	.70731	1
60	.65606	.75471	.60913	74314	.68200	.73135	.69466	.71934	.70711	.70711	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	49°		48°		47°		46°		45°		

′	0°		1°		2°		3°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.00000	Infinite.	.01746	57.2900	.03492	28.6363	.05241	19.0811	60
1	.00029	3437.75	.01775	56.3506	.03521	28.3994	.05270	18.9755	59
2	.00058	1718.87	.01804	55.4415	.03550	28.1664	.05299	18.8711	58
3	.00087	1145.92	.01833	54.5613	.03579	27.9372	.05328	18.7678	57
4	.00116	859.436	.01862	53.7086	.03609	27.7117	.05357	18.6656	56
5	.00145	687.549	.01891	52.8821	.03638	27.4899	.05387	18.5645	55
6	.00175	572.957	.01920	52.0807	.03667	27.2715	.05416	18.4645	54
7	.00204	491.106	.01949	51.3032	.03696	27.0566	.05445	18.3655	53
8	.00233	429.718	.01978	50.5485	.03725	26.8450	.05474	18.2677	52
9	.00262	381.971	.02007	49.8157	.03754	26.6367	.05503	18.1708	51
10	.00291	343.774	.02036	49.1039	.03783	26.4316	.05533	18.0750	50
11	.00320	312.521	.02066	48.4121	.03812	26.2296	.05562	17.9802	49
12	.00349	286.478	.02095	47.7395	.03842	26.0307	.05591	17.8863	48
13	.00378	264.441	.02124	47.0853	.03871	25.8348	.05620	17.7934	47
14	.00407	245.552	.02153	46.4489	.03900	25.6418	.05649	17.7015	46
15	.00436	229.182	.02182	45.8294	.03929	25.4517	.05678	17.6106	45
16	.00465	214.858	.02211	45.2261	.03958	25.2644	.05708	17.5205	44
17	.00495	202.219	.02240	44.6386	.03987	25.0798	.05737	17.4314	43
18	.00524	190.984	.02269	44.0661	.04016	24.8978	.05766	17.3432	42
19	.00553	180.932	.02298	43.5081	.04046	24.7185	.05795	17.2558	41
20	.00582	171.885	.02328	42.9641	.04075	24.5418	.05824	17.1693	40
21	.00611	163.700	.02357	42.4335	.04104	24.3675	.05854	17.0837	39
22	.00640	156.259	.02386	41.9158	.04133	24.1957	.05883	16.9990	38
23	.00669	149.465	.02415	41.4106	.04162	24.0263	.05912	16.9150	37
24	.00698	143.237	.02444	40.9174	.04191	23.8593	.05941	16.8319	36
25	.00727	137.507	.02473	40.4358	.04220	23.6945	.05970	16.7496	35
26	.00756	132.219	.02502	39.9655	.04250	23.5321	.05999	16.6681	34
27	.00785	127.321	.02531	39.5059	.04279	23.3718	.06029	16.5874	33
28	.00815	122.774	.02560	39.0568	.04308	23.2137	.06058	16.5075	32
29	.00844	118.540	.02589	38.6177	.04337	23.0577	.06087	16.4283	31
30	.00873	114.589	.02519	38.1885	.04366	22.9038	.06116	16.3499	30
31	.00902	110.892	.02648	37.7686	.04395	22.7519	.06145	16.2722	29
32	.00931	107.426	.02677	37.3579	.04424	22.6020	.06175	16.1952	28
33	.00960	104.171	.02706	36.9560	.04454	22.4541	.06204	16.1190	27
34	.00989	101.107	.02735	36.5627	.04483	22.3081	.06233	16.0435	26
35	.01018	98.2179	.02764	36.1776	.04512	22.1640	.06262	15.9687	25
36	.01047	95.4895	.02793	35.8006	.04541	22.0217	.06291	15.8945	24
37	.01076	92.9085	.02822	35.4313	.04570	21.8813	.06321	15.8211	23
38	.01105	90.4633	.02851	35.0695	.04599	21.7426	.06350	15.7483	22
39	.01135	88.1436	.02881	34.7151	.04628	21.6056	.06379	15.6762	21
40	.01164	85.9398	.02910	34.3678	.04658	21.4704	.06408	15.6048	20
41	.01193	83.8435	.02939	34.0273	.04687	21.3369	.06437	15.5340	19
42	.01222	81.8470	.02968	33.6935	.04716	21.2049	.06467	15.4638	18
43	.01251	79.9434	.02997	33.3662	.04745	21.0747	.06496	15.3943	17
44	.01280	78.1263	.03026	33.0452	.04774	20.9460	.06525	15.3254	16
45	.01309	76.3900	.03055	32.7303	.04803	20.8188	.06554	15.2571	15
46	.01338	74.7292	.03084	32.4213	.04833	20.6932	.06584	15.1893	14
47	.01367	73.1390	.03114	32.1181	.04862	20.5691	.06613	15.1222	13
48	.01396	71.6151	.03143	31.8205	.04891	20.4465	.06612	15.0557	12
49	.01425	70.1533	.03172	31.5284	.04920	20.3253	.06671	14.9898	11
50	.01455	68.7501	.03201	31.2416	.04949	20.2056	.06700	14.9244	10
51	.01484	67.4019	.03230	30.9599	.04978	20.0872	.06730	14.8596	9
52	.01513	66.1055	.03259	30.6833	.05007	19.9702	.06759	14.7954	8
53	.01542	64.8580	.03288	30.4116	.05037	19.8546	.06788	14.7317	7
54	.01571	63.6567	.03317	30.1446	.05066	19.7403	.06817	14.6685	6
55	.01600	62.4992	.03346	29.8823	.05095	19.6273	.06847	14.6059	5
56	.01629	61.3829	.03376	29.6245	.05124	19.5156	.06876	14.5438	4
57	.01658	60.3058	.03405	29.3711	.05153	19.4051	.06905	14.4823	3
58	.01687	59.2659	.03434	29.1220	.05182	19.2959	.06934	14.4212	2
59	.01716	58.2612	.03463	28.8771	.05212	19.1879	.06963	14.3607	1
60	.01746	57.2900	.03492	28.6363	.05241	19.0811	.06993	14.3007	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	89°		88°		87°		86°		

′	4°		5°		6°		7°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.06993	14.3007	.08749	11.4301	.10510	9.51436	.12278	8.14435	60
1	.07022	14.2411	.08778	11.3919	.10540	9.48781	.12308	8.12481	59
2	.07051	14.1821	.08807	11.3540	.10569	9.46141	.12338	8.10536	58
3	.07080	14.1235	.08837	11.3163	.10599	9.43515	.12367	8.08600	57
4	.07110	14.0655	.08866	11.2789	.10628	9.40904	.12397	8.06674	56
5	.07139	14.0079	.08895	11.2417	.10657	9.38307	.12426	8.04756	55
6	.07168	13.9507	.08925	11.2048	.10687	9.35724	.12456	8.02848	54
7	.07197	13.8940	.08954	11.1681	.10716	9.33155	.12485	8.00948	53
8	.07227	13.8378	.08983	11.1316	.10746	9.30599	.12515	7.99058	52
9	.07256	13.7821	.09013	11.0954	.10775	9.28058	.12544	7.97176	51
10	.07285	13.7267	.09042	11.0594	.10805	9.25530	.12574	7.95302	50
11	.07314	13.6719	.09071	11.0237	.10834	9.23016	.12603	7.93438	49
12	.07344	13.6174	.09101	10.9882	.10863	9.20516	.12633	7.91582	48
13	.07373	13.5634	.09130	10.9529	.10893	9.18028	.12662	7.89734	47
14	.07402	13.5098	.09159	10.9178	.10922	9.15554	.12692	7.87895	46
15	.07431	13.4566	.09189	10.8829	.10952	9.13093	.12722	7.86064	45
16	.07461	13.4039	.09218	10.8483	.10981	9.10646	.12751	7.84242	44
17	.07490	13.3515	.09247	10.8139	.11011	9.08211	.12781	7.82428	43
18	.07519	13.2996	.09277	10.7797	.11040	9.05789	.12810	7.80622	42
19	.07548	13.2480	.09306	10.7457	.11070	9.03379	.12840	7.78825	41
20	.07578	13.1969	.09335	10.7119	.11099	9.00983	.12869	7.77035	40
21	.07607	13.1461	.09365	10.6783	.11128	8.98598	.12899	7.75254	39
22	.07636	13.0958	.09394	10.6450	.11158	8.96227	.12929	7.73480	38
23	.07665	13.0458	.09423	10.6118	.11187	8.93867	.12958	7.71715	37
24	.07695	12.9962	.09453	10.5789	.11217	8.91520	.12988	7.69957	36
25	.07724	12.9469	.09482	10.5462	.11246	8.89185	.13017	7.68208	35
26	.07753	12.8981	.09511	10.5136	.11276	8.86862	.13047	7.66466	34
27	.07782	12.8496	.09541	10.4813	.11305	8.84551	.13076	7.64732	33
28	.07812	12.8014	.09570	10.4491	.11335	8.82252	.13106	7.63005	32
29	.07841	12.7536	.09600	10.4172	.11364	8.79964	.13136	7.61287	31
30	.07870	12.7062	.09629	10.3854	.11394	8.77689	.13165	7.59575	30
31	.07899	12.6591	.09658	10.3538	.11423	8.75425	.13195	7.57872	29
32	.07929	12.6124	.09688	10.3224	.11452	8.73172	.13224	7.56176	28
33	.07958	12.5660	.09717	10.2913	.11482	8.70931	.13254	7.54487	27
34	.07987	12.5199	.09746	10.2602	.11511	8.68701	.13284	7.52806	26
35	.08017	12.4742	.09776	10.2294	.11541	8.66482	.13313	7.51132	25
36	.08046	12.4288	.09805	10.1988	.11570	8.64275	.13343	7.49465	24
37	.08075	12.3838	.09834	10.1683	.11600	8.62078	.13372	7.47806	23
38	.08104	12.3390	.09864	10.1381	.11629	8.59893	.13402	7.46154	22
39	.08134	12.2946	.09893	10.1080	.11659	8.57718	.13432	7.44509	21
40	.08163	12.2505	.09923	10.0780	.11688	8.55555	.13461	7.42871	20
41	.08192	12.2067	.09952	10.0483	.11718	8.53402	.13491	7.41240	19
42	.08221	12.1632	.09981	10.0187	.11747	8.51259	.13521	7.39616	18
43	.08251	12.1201	.10011	9.98931	.11777	8.49128	.13550	7.37999	17
44	.08280	12.0772	.10040	9.96007	.11806	8.47007	.13580	7.36389	16
45	.08309	12.0346	.10069	9.93101	.11836	8.44896	.13609	7.34786	15
46	.08339	11.9923	.10099	9.90211	.11865	8.42795	.13639	7.23190	14
47	.08368	11.9504	.10128	9.87338	.11895	8.40705	.13669	7.31600	13
48	.08397	11.9087	.10158	9.84482	.11924	8.38625	.13698	7.30018	12
49	.08427	11.8673	.10187	9.81641	.11954	8.36555	.13728	7.28442	11
50	.08456	11.8262	.10216	9.78817	.11983	8.34496	.13758	7.26873	10
51	.08485	11.7853	.10246	9.76009	.12013	8.32446	.13787	7.25310	9
52	.08514	11.7448	.10275	9.73217	.12042	8.30406	.13817	7.23754	8
53	.08544	11.7045	.10305	9.70441	.12072	8.28376	.13846	7.22204	7
54	.08573	11.6645	.10334	9.67680	.12101	8.26355	.13876	7.20661	6
55	.08602	11.6248	.10363	9.64935	.12131	8.24345	.13906	7.19125	5
56	.08632	11.5853	.10393	9.62205	.12160	8.22344	.13935	7.17594	4
57	.08661	11.5461	.10422	9.59490	.12190	8.20352	.13965	7.16071	3
58	.08690	11.5072	.10452	9.56791	.12219	8.18370	.13995	7.14553	2
59	.08720	11.4685	.10481	9.54106	.12249	8.16398	.14024	7.13042	1
60	.08749	11.4301	.10510	9.51436	.12278	8.14435	.14054	7.11537	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	85°		84°		83°		82°		

′	8°		9°		10°		11°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.14054	7.11537	.15838	6.31375	.17633	5.67128	.19438	5.14455	60
1	.14084	7.10038	.15868	6.30189	.17663	5.66165	.19468	5.13658	59
2	.14113	7.08546	.15898	6.29007	.17693	5.65205	.19498	5.12862	58
3	.14143	7.07059	.15928	6.27829	.17723	5.64248	.19520	5.12069	57
4	.14173	7.05579	.15958	6.26655	.17753	5.63295	.19559	5.11279	56
5	.14202	7.04105	.15988	6.25486	.17783	5.62344	.19589	5.10490	55
6	.14232	7.02637	.16017	6.24321	.17813	5.61397	.19619	5.09704	54
7	.14262	6.91174	.16047	6.23160	.17843	5.60452	.19649	5.08921	53
8	.14291	6.99718	.16077	6.22003	.17873	5.59511	.19680	5.08139	52
9	.14321	6.98268	.16107	6.20851	.17903	5.58573	.19710	5.07360	51
10	.14351	6.96823	.16137	6.19703	.17933	5.57638	.19740	5.06584	50
11	.14381	6.95385	.16167	6.18559	.17963	5.56706	.19770	5.05809	49
12	.14410	6.93952	.16196	6.17419	.17993	5.55777	.19801	5.05037	48
13	.14440	6.92525	.16226	6.16283	.18023	5.54851	.19831	5.04267	47
14	.14470	6.91104	.16256	6.15151	.18053	5.53927	.19861	5.03499	46
15	.14499	6.89688	.16286	6.14023	.18083	5.53007	.19891	5.02734	45
16	.14529	6.88278	.16316	6.12899	.18113	5.52090	.19921	5.01971	44
17	.14559	6.86874	.16346	6.11779	.18143	5.51176	.19952	5.01210	43
18	.14588	6.85475	.16376	6.10664	.18173	5.50264	.19982	5.00451	42
19	.14618	6.84082	.16405	6.09552	.18203	5.49356	.20012	4.99695	41
20	.14648	6.82694	.16435	6.08444	.18233	5.48451	.20042	4.98940	40
21	.14678	6.81312	.16465	6.07340	.18263	5.47548	.20073	4.98188	39
22	.14707	6.79936	.16495	6.06240	.18293	5.46648	.20103	4.97438	38
23	.14737	6.78564	.16525	6.05143	.18323	5.45751	.20133	4.96690	37
24	.14767	6.77199	.16555	6.04051	.18353	5.44857	.20164	4.95945	36
25	.14796	6.75838	.16585	6.02962	.18384	5.43966	.20194	4.95201	35
26	.14826	6.74483	.16615	6.01878	.18414	5.43077	.20224	4.94460	34
27	.14856	6.73133	.16645	6.00797	.18444	5.42192	.20254	4.93721	33
28	.14886	6.71789	.16674	5.99720	.18474	5.41309	.20285	4.92984	32
29	.14915	6.70450	.16704	5.98646	.18504	5.40429	.20315	4.92249	31
30	.14945	6.69116	.16734	5.97576	.18534	5.39552	.20345	4.91516	30
31	.14975	6.67787	.16764	5.96510	.18564	5.38677	.20376	4.90785	29
32	.15005	6.66463	.16794	5.95448	.18594	5.37805	.20406	4.90056	28
33	.15034	6.65144	.16824	5.94390	.18624	5.36936	.20436	4.89330	27
34	.15064	6.63831	.16854	5.93335	.18654	5.36070	.20466	4.88605	26
35	.15094	6.62523	.16884	5.92283	.18684	5.35206	.20497	4.87882	25
36	.15124	6.61219	.16914	5.91236	.18714	5.34345	.20527	4.87162	24
37	.15153	6.59921	.16944	5.90191	.18745	5.33487	.20557	4.86444	23
38	.15183	6.58627	.16974	5.89151	.18775	5.32631	.20588	4.85727	22
39	.15213	6.57339	.17004	5.88114	.18805	5.31778	.20618	4.85013	21
40	.15243	6.56055	.17033	5.87080	.18835	5.30928	.20648	4.84300	20
41	.15272	6.54777	.17063	5.86051	.18865	5.30080	.20679	4.83590	19
42	.15302	6.53503	.17093	5.85024	.18895	5.29235	.20709	4.82882	18
43	.15332	6.52234	.17123	5.84001	.18925	5.28393	.20739	4.82175	17
44	.15362	6.50970	.17153	5.82982	.18955	5.27553	.20770	4.81471	16
45	.15391	6.49710	.17183	5.81966	.18986	5.26715	.20800	4.80769	15
46	.15421	6.48456	.17213	5.80953	.19016	5.25880	.20830	4.80068	14
47	.15451	6.47206	.17243	5.79944	.19046	5.25048	.20861	4.79370	13
48	.15481	6.45961	.17273	5.78938	.19076	5.24218	.20891	4.78673	12
49	.15511	6.44720	.17303	5.77936	.19106	5.23391	.20921	4.77978	11
50	.15540	6.43484	.17333	5.76937	.19136	5.22536	.20952	4.77286	10
51	.15570	6.42253	.17363	5.75941	.19166	5.21744	.20982	4.76595	9
52	.15600	6.41026	.17393	5.74949	.19197	5.20925	.21013	4.75906	8
53	.15630	6.39804	.17423	5.73960	.19227	5.20107	.21043	4.75219	7
54	.15660	6.38587	.17453	5.72974	.19257	5.19293	.21073	4.74534	6
55	.15639	6.37374	.17483	5.71992	.19287	5.18480	.21104	4.73851	5
56	.15719	6.36165	.17513	5.71013	.19317	5.17671	.21134	4.73170	4
57	.15749	6.34961	.17543	5.70037	.19347	5.16863	.21164	4.72490	3
58	.15779	6.33761	.17573	5.69064	.19378	5.16058	.21195	4.71813	2
59	.15809	6.32566	.17603	5.68094	.19408	5.15256	.21225	4.71137	1
60	.15838	6.31375	.17633	5.67128	.19438	5.14455	.21256	4.70463	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	81°		80°		79°		78°		

′	12°		13°		14°		15°	
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang
0	.21256	4.70463	.23087	4.33148	.24933	4.01078	.26795	3.73205
1	.21286	4.69791	.23117	4.32573	.24964	4.00582	.26826	3.72771
2	.21316	4.69121	.23148	4.32001	.24995	4.00086	.26857	3.72338
3	.21347	4.68452	.23179	4.31430	.25026	3.99592	.26888	3.71907
4	.21377	4.67786	.23209	4.30860	.25056	3.99099	.26920	3.71476
5	.21408	4.67121	.23240	4.30291	.25087	3.98607	.26951	3.71046
6	.21438	4.66458	.23271	4.29724	.25118	3.98117	.26982	3.70616
7	.21469	4.65797	.23301	4.29159	.25149	3.97627	.27013	3.70188
8	.21499	4.65138	.23332	4.28595	.25180	3.97139	.27044	3.69761
9	.21529	4.64480	.23363	4.28032	.25211	3.96651	.27076	3.69335
10	.21560	4.63825	.23393	4.27471	.25242	3.96165	.27107	3.68909
11	.21590	4.63171	.23424	4.26911	.25273	3.95680	.27138	3.68485
12	.21621	4.62518	.23455	4.26352	.25304	3.95196	.27169	3.68061
13	.21651	4.61868	.23485	4.25795	.25335	3.94713	.27201	3.67638
14	.21682	4.61219	.23516	4.25239	.25366	3.94232	.27232	3.67217
15	.21712	4.60572	.23547	4.24685	.25397	3.93751	.27263	3.66796
16	.21743	4.59927	.23578	4.24132	.25428	3.93271	.27294	3.66376
17	.21773	4.59283	.23608	4.23580	.25459	3.92793	.27326	3.65957
18	.21804	4.58641	.23639	4.23030	.25490	3.92316	.27357	3.65538
19	.21834	4.58001	.23670	4.22481	.25521	3.91839	.27388	3.65121
20	.21864	4.57363	.23700	4.21933	.25552	3.91364	.27419	3.64705
21	.21895	4.56726	.23731	4.21387	.25583	3.90890	.27451	3.64289
22	.21925	4.56091	.23762	4.20842	.25614	3.90417	.27482	3.63874
23	.21956	4.55458	.23793	4.20298	.25645	3.89945	.27513	3.63461
24	.21986	4.54826	.23823	4.19756	.25676	3.89474	.27545	3.63048
25	.22017	4.54196	.23854	4.19215	.25707	3.89004	.27576	3.62636
26	.22047	4.53568	.23885	4.18675	.25738	3.88536	.27607	3.62224
27	.22078	4.52941	.23916	4.18137	.25769	3.88068	.27638	3.61814
28	.22108	4.52316	.23946	4.17600	.25800	3.87601	.27670	3.61405
29	.22139	4.51693	.23977	4.17064	.25831	3.87136	.27701	3.60996
30	.22169	4.51071	.24008	4.16530	.25862	3.86671	.27732	3.60588
31	.22200	4.50451	.24039	4.15997	.25893	3.86208	.27764	3.60181
32	.22231	4.49832	.24069	4.15465	.25924	3.85745	.27795	3.59775
33	.22261	4.49215	.24100	4.14934	.25955	3.85284	.27826	3.59370
34	.22292	4.48600	.24131	4.14405	.25986	3.84824	.27858	3.58966
35	.22322	4.47986	.24162	4.13877	.26017	3.84364	.27889	3.58562
36	.22353	4.47374	.24193	4.13350	.26048	3.83906	.27921	3.58160
37	.22383	4.46764	.24223	4.12825	.26079	3.83449	.27952	3.57758
38	.22414	4.46155	.24254	4.12301	.26110	3.82992	.27983	3.57357
39	.22444	4.45548	.24285	4.11778	.26141	3.82537	.28015	3.56957
40	.22475	4.44942	.24316	4.11256	.26172	3.82083	.28046	3.56557
41	.22505	4.44338	.24347	4.10736	.26203	3.81630	.28077	3.56159
42	.22536	4.43735	.24377	4.10216	.26235	3.81177	.28109	3.55761
43	.22567	4.43134	.24408	4.09699	.26266	3.80726	.28140	3.55364
44	.22597	4.42534	.24439	4.09182	.26297	3.80276	.28172	3.54968
45	.22628	4.41936	.24470	4.08666	.26328	3.79827	.28203	3.54573
46	.22658	4.41340	.24501	4.08152	.26359	3.79378	.28234	3.54179
47	.22689	4.40745	.24532	4.07639	.26390	3.78931	.28266	3.53785
48	.22719	4.40152	.24562	4.07127	.26421	3.78485	.28297	3.53393
49	.22750	4.39560	.24593	4.06616	.26452	3.78040	.28329	3.53001
50	.22781	4.38969	.24624	4.06107	.26483	3.77595	.28360	3.52609
51	.22811	4.38381	.24655	4.05599	.26515	3.77152	.28391	3.52219
52	.22842	4.37793	.24686	4.05092	.26546	3.76709	.28423	3.51829
53	.22872	4.37207	.24717	4.04586	.26577	3.76268	.28454	3.51441
54	.22903	4.36623	.24747	4.04081	.26608	3.75828	.28486	3.51053
55	.22934	4.36040	.24778	4.03578	.26639	3.75388	.28517	3.50666
56	.22964	4.35459	.24809	4.03076	.26670	3.74950	.28549	3.50279
57	.22995	4.34879	.24840	4.02574	.26701	3.74512	.28580	3.49894
58	.23026	4.34300	.24871	4.02074	.26733	3.74075	.28612	3.49509
59	.23056	4.33723	.24902	4.01576	.26764	3.73640	.28643	3.49125
60	.23087	4.33148	.24933	4.01078	.26795	3.73205	.28675	3.48741
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang
	77°		76°		75°		74°	

	16°		17°		18°		19°		
′	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	′
0	.28675	3.48741	.30573	3.27085	.32492	3.07768	.34433	2.90421	60
1	.28706	3.48359	.30605	3.26745	.32524	3.07464	.34465	2.90147	59
2	.28738	3.47977	.30637	3.26406	.32556	3.07160	.34498	2.89873	58
3	.28769	3.47596	.30669	3.26067	.32588	3.06857	.34530	2.89600	57
4	.28800	3.47216	.30700	3.25729	.32621	3.06554	.34563	2.89327	56
5	.28832	3.46837	.30732	3.25392	.32653	3.06252	.34596	2.89055	55
6	.28864	3.46458	.30764	3.25055	.32685	3.05950	.34628	2.88783	54
7	.28895	3.46080	.30796	3.24719	.32717	3.05649	.34661	2.88511	53
8	.28927	3.45703	.30828	3.24383	.32749	3.05349	.34693	2.88240	52
9	.28958	3.45327	.30860	3.24049	.32782	3.05049	.34726	2.87970	51
10	.28990	3.44951	.30891	3.23714	.32814	3.04749	.34758	2.87700	50
11	.29021	3.44576	.30923	3.23381	.32846	3.04450	.34791	2.87430	49
12	.29053	3.44202	.30955	3.23048	.32878	3.04152	.34824	2.87161	48
13	.29084	3.43829	.30987	3.22715	.32911	3.03854	.34856	2.86892	47
14	.29116	3.43456	.31019	3.22384	.32943	3.03556	.34889	2.86624	46
15	.29147	3.43084	.31051	3.22053	.32975	3.03260	.34922	2.86356	45
16	.29179	3.42713	.31083	3.21722	.33007	3.02963	.34954	2.86089	44
17	.29210	3.42343	.31115	3.21392	.33040	3.02667	.34987	2.85822	43
18	.29242	3.41973	.31147	3.21063	.33072	3.02372	.35020	2.85555	42
19	.29274	3.41604	.31178	3.20734	.33104	3.02077	.35052	2.85289	41
20	.29305	3.41236	.31210	3.20406	.33136	3.01783	.35085	2.85023	40
21	.29337	3.40869	.31242	3.20079	.33169	3.01489	.35118	2.84758	39
22	.29368	3.40502	.31274	3.19752	.33201	3.01196	.35150	2.84494	38
23	.29400	3.40136	.31306	3.19426	.33233	3.00903	.35183	2.84229	37
24	.29432	3.39771	.31338	3.19100	.33266	3.00611	.35216	2.83965	26
25	.29463	3.39406	.31370	3.18775	.33298	3.00319	.35248	2.83702	35
26	.29495	3.39042	.31402	3.18451	.33330	3.00028	.35281	2.83439	34
27	.29526	3.38679	.31434	3.18127	.33363	2.99738	.35314	2.83176	33
28	.29558	3.38317	.31466	3.17804	.33395	2.99447	.35346	2.82914	32
29	.29590	3.37955	.31498	3.17481	.33427	2.99158	.35379	2.82653	31
30	.29621	3.37594	.31530	3.17159	.33460	2.98868	.35412	2.82391	30
31	.29653	3.37234	.31562	3.16838	.33492	2.98580	.35445	2.82130	29
32	.29685	3.36875	.31594	3.16517	.33524	2.98292	.35477	2.81870	28
33	.29716	3.36516	.31626	3.16197	.33557	2.98004	.35510	2.81610	27
34	.29748	3.36158	.31658	3.15877	.33589	2.97717	.35543	2.81350	26
35	.29780	3.35800	.31690	3.15558	.33621	2.97430	.35576	2.81091	25
36	.29811	3.35443	.31722	3.15240	.33654	2.97144	.35608	2.80833	24
37	.29843	3.35087	.31754	3.14922	.33686	2.96858	.35641	2.80574	23
38	.29875	3.34732	.31786	3.14605	.33718	2.96573	.35674	2.80316	22
39	.29906	3.34377	.31818	3.14288	.33751	2.96288	.35707	2.80059	21
40	.29938	3.34023	.31850	3.13972	.33783	2.96004	.35740	2.79802	20
41	.29970	3.33670	.31882	3.13656	.33816	2.95721	.35772	2.79545	19
42	.30001	3.33317	.31914	3.13341	.33848	2.95437	.35805	2.79289	18
43	.30033	3.32965	.31946	3.13027	.33881	2.95155	.35838	2.79033	17
44	.30065	3.32614	.31978	3.12713	.33913	2.94872	.35871	2.78778	16
45	.30097	3.32264	.32010	3.12400	.33945	2.94591	.35904	2.78523	15
46	.30128	3.31914	.32042	3.12087	.33978	2.94309	.35937	2.78269	14
47	.30160	3.31565	.32074	3.11775	.34010	2.94028	.35969	2.78014	12
48	.30192	3.31216	.32106	3.11464	.34043	2.93748	.36002	2.77761	12
49	.30224	3.30868	.32139	3.11153	.34075	2.93468	.36035	2.77507	11
50	.30255	3.30521	.32171	3.10842	.34108	2.93189	.36068	2.77254	10
51	.30287	3.30174	.32203	3.10532	.34140	2.92910	.36101	2.77002	9
52	.30319	3.29829	.32235	3.10223	.34173	2.92632	.36134	2.76750	8
53	.30351	3.29483	.32267	3.09914	.34205	2.92354	.36167	2.76498	7
54	.30382	3.29139	.32299	3.09606	.34238	2.92076	.36199	2.76247	6
55	.30414	3.28795	.32331	3.09298	.34270	2.91799	.36232	2.75996	5
56	.30446	3.28452	.32363	3.08991	.34303	2.91523	.36265	2.75746	4
57	.30478	3.28109	.32296	3.08685	.34335	2.91246	.36298	2.75496	3
58	.30509	3.27767	.32428	3.08379	.34368	2.90971	.36331	2.75246	2
59	.30541	3.27426	.22460	3.08073	.34400	2.90696	.36364	2.74997	1
60	.30573	3.27085	.32492	3.07768	.34433	2.90421	.36397	2.74748	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	73°		72°		71°		70°		

′	20°		21°		22°		23°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.36397	2.74748	.38386	2.60509	.40403	2.47509	.42447	2.35585	60
1	.36430	2.74499	.38420	2.60283	.40436	2.47302	.42482	2.35395	59
2	.36463	2.74251	.38453	2.60057	.40470	2.47095	.42516	2.35205	58
3	.36496	2.74004	.38487	2.59831	.40504	2.46888	.42551	2.35015	57
4	.36529	2.73756	.38520	2.59606	.40538	2.46682	.42585	2.34825	56
5	.36562	2.73509	.38553	2.59381	.40572	2.46476	.42619	2.34636	55
6	.36595	2.73263	.38587	2.59156	.40606	2.46270	.42654	2.34447	54
7	.36628	2.73017	.38620	2.58932	.40640	2.46065	.42688	2.34258	53
8	.36661	2.72771	.38654	2.58708	.40674	2.45860	.42722	2.34069	52
9	.36694	2.72526	.38687	2.58484	.40707	2.45655	.42757	2.33881	51
10	.36727	2.72281	.38721	2.58261	.40741	2.45451	.42791	2.33693	50
11	.36760	2.72036	.38754	2.58038	.40775	2.45246	.42826	2.33505	49
12	.36793	2.71792	.38787	2.57815	.40809	2.45043	.42860	2.33317	48
13	.36826	2.71548	.38821	2.57593	.40843	2.44839	.42894	2.33130	47
14	.36859	2.71305	.38854	2.57371	.40877	2.44636	.42929	2.32943	46
15	.36892	2.71062	.38888	2.57150	.40911	2.44433	.42963	2.32756	45
16	.36925	2.70819	.38921	2.56928	.40945	2.44230	.42998	2.32570	44
17	.36958	2.70577	.38955	2.56707	.40979	2.44027	.43032	2.32383	43
18	.36991	2.70335	.38988	2.56487	.41013	2.43825	.43067	2.32197	42
19	.37024	2.70094	.39022	2.56266	.41047	2.43623	.43101	2.32012	41
20	.37057	2.69853	.39055	2.56046	.41081	2.43422	.43136	2.31826	40
21	.37090	2.69612	.39089	2.55827	.41115	2.43220	.43170	2.31641	39
22	.37123	2.69371	.39122	2.55608	.41149	2.43019	.43205	2.31456	38
23	.37157	2.69131	.39156	2.55389	.41183	2.42819	.43239	2.31271	37
24	.37190	2.68892	.39190	2.55170	.41217	2.42618	.43274	2.31086	36
25	.37223	2.68653	.39223	2.54952	.41251	2.42418	.43308	2.30902	35
26	.37256	2.68414	.39257	2.54734	.41285	2.42218	.43343	2.30718	34
27	.37289	2.68175	.39290	2.54516	.41319	2.42019	.43378	2.30534	33
28	.37322	2.67937	.39324	2.54299	.41353	2.41819	.43412	2.30351	32
29	.37355	2.67700	.39357	2.54082	.41387	2.41620	.43447	2.30167	31
30	.37388	2.67462	.39391	2.53865	.41421	2.41421	.43481	2.29984	30
31	.37422	2.67225	.39425	2.53648	.41455	2.41223	.43516	2.29801	29
32	.37455	2.66989	.39458	2.53432	.41490	2.41025	.43550	2.29619	28
33	.37488	2.66752	.39492	2.53217	.41524	2.40827	.43585	2.29437	27
34	.37521	2.66516	.39526	2.53001	.41558	2.40629	.43620	2.29254	26
35	.37554	2.66281	.39559	2.52786	.41592	2.40432	.43654	2.29073	25
36	.37588	2.66046	.39593	2.52571	.41626	2.40235	.43689	2.28891	24
37	.37621	2.65811	.39626	2.52357	.41660	2.40038	.43724	2.28710	23
38	.37654	2.65576	.39660	2.52142	.41694	2.39841	.43758	2.28528	22
39	.37687	2.65342	.39694	2.51929	.41728	2.39645	.43793	2.28348	21
40	.37720	2.65109	.39727	2.51715	.41763	2.39449	.43828	2.28167	20
41	.37754	2.64875	.39761	2.51502	.41797	2.39253	.43862	2.27987	19
42	.37787	2.64642	.39795	2.51289	.41831	2.39058	.43897	2.27806	18
43	.37820	2.64410	.39829	2.51076	.41865	2.38863	.43932	2.27626	17
44	.37853	2.64177	.39862	2.50864	.41899	2.38668	.43966	2.27447	16
45	.37887	2.63945	.39896	2.50652	.41933	2.38473	.44001	2.27267	15
46	.37920	2.63714	.39930	2.50440	.41968	2.38279	.44036	2.27088	14
47	.37953	2.63483	.39963	2.50229	.42002	2.38084	.44071	2.26909	13
48	.37986	2.63252	.39997	2.50018	.42036	2.37891	.44105	2.26730	12
49	.38020	2.63021	.40031	2.49807	.42070	2.37697	.44140	2.26552	11
50	.38053	2.62791	.40065	2.49597	.42105	2.37504	.44175	2.26374	10
51	.38086	2.62561	.40098	2.49386	.42139	2.37311	.44210	2.26196	9
52	.38120	2.62332	.40132	2.49177	.42173	2.37118	.44244	2.26018	8
53	.38153	2.62103	.40166	2.48967	.42207	2.36925	.44279	2.25840	7
54	.38186	2.61874	.40200	2.48758	.42242	2.36733	.44314	2.25663	6
55	.38220	2.61646	.40234	2.48549	.42276	2.36541	.44349	2.25486	5
56	.38253	2.61418	.40267	2.48340	.42310	2.36349	.44384	2.25309	4
57	.38286	2.61190	.40301	2.48132	.42345	2.36158	.44418	2.25132	3
58	.38320	2.60963	.40335	2.47924	.42379	2.35967	.44453	2.24956	2
59	.38353	2.60736	.40369	2.47716	.42413	2.35776	.44488	2.24780	1
60	.38386	2.60509	.40403	2.47509	.42447	2.35585	.44523	2.24604	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	69°		68°		67°		66°		

′	24°		25°		26°		27°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.44523	2.24604	.46631	2.14451	.48773	2.05030	.50953	1.96261	60
1	.44558	2.24428	.46666	2.14288	.48809	2.04879	.50989	1.96120	59
2	.44593	2.24252	.46702	2.14125	.48845	2.04728	.51026	1.95979	58
3	.44627	2.24077	.46737	2.13963	.48881	2.04577	.51063	1.95838	57
4	.44662	2.23902	.46772	2.13801	.48917	2.04426	.51099	1.95698	56
5	.44697	2.23727	.46808	2.13639	.48953	2.04276	.51136	1.95557	55
6	.44732	2.23553	.46843	2.13477	.48989	2.04125	.51173	1.95417	54
7	.44767	2.23378	.46879	2.13316	.49026	2.03975	.51209	1.95277	53
8	.44802	2.23204	.46914	2.13154	.49062	2.03825	.51246	1.95127	52
9	.44837	2.23030	.46950	2.12993	.49098	2.03675	.51283	1.94997	51
10	.44872	2.22857	.46985	2.12832	.49134	2.03526	.51319	1.94858	50
11	.44907	2.22683	.47021	2.12671	.49170	2.03376	.51356	1.94718	49
12	.44942	2.22510	.47056	2.12511	.49206	2.03227	.51393	1.94579	48
13	.44977	2.22337	.47092	2.12350	.49242	2.03078	.51430	1.94440	47
14	.45012	2.22164	.47128	2.12190	.49278	2.02929	.51467	1.94301	46
15	.45047	2.21992	.47163	2.12030	.49315	2.02780	.51503	1.94162	45
16	.45082	2.21819	.47199	2.11871	.49351	2.02631	.51540	1.94023	44
17	.45117	2.21647	.47234	2.11711	.49387	2.02483	.51577	1.93885	43
18	.45152	2.21475	.47270	2.11552	.49423	2.02335	.51614	1.93746	42
19	.45187	2.21304	.47305	2.11392	.49459	2.02187	.51651	1.93608	41
20	.45222	2.21132	.47341	2.11233	.49495	2.02039	51688	1.93470	40
21	.45257	2.20961	.47377	2.11075	.49532	2.01891	.51724	1.93332	39
22	.45292	2.20790	.47412	2.10916	.49568	2.01743	.51761	1.93195	38
23	.45327	2.20619	.47448	2.10758	.49604	2.01596	.51798	1.93057	37
24	.45362	2.20449	.47483	2.10600	.49640	2.01449	.51835	1.92920	36
25	.45397	2.20278	.47519	2.10442	.49677	2.01302	.51872	1.92782	35
26	.45432	2.20108	.47555	2.10284	.49713	2.01155	.51909	1.92645	34
27	.45467	2.19938	.47590	2.10126	.49749	2.01008	.51946	1.92508	33
28	.45502	2.19769	.47626	2.09969	.49786	2.00862	.51983	1.92371	32
29	.45538	2.19599	.47662	2.09811	.49822	2.00715	.52020	1.92235	31
30	.45573	2.19430	.47698	2.09654	.49858	2.00569	.52057	1.92098	30
31	.45608	2.19261	.47733	2.09498	.49894	2.00423	.52094	1.91962	29
32	.45643	2.19092	.47769	2.09341	.49931	2.00277	.52131	1.91826	28
33	.45678	2.18923	.47805	2.09184	.49967	2.00131	.52168	1.91690	27
34	.45713	2.18755	.47840	2.09028	.50004	1.99986	.52205	1.91552	26
35	.45748	2.18587	.47876	2.08872	.50040	1.99841	.52242	1.91414	25
36	.45784	2.18419	.47912	2.08716	.50076	1.99695	.52279	1.91288	24
37	.45819	2.18251	.47948	2.08560	.50113	1.99550	.52316	1.91142	23
38	.45854	2.18084	.47984	2.08405	.50149	1.99406	.52353	1.91017	22
39	.45889	2.17916	.48019	2.08250	.50185	1.99261	.52390	1.90876	21
40	.45924	2.17749	.48055	2.08094	.50222	1.99116	.52427	1.90741	20
41	.45960	2.17582	.48091	2.07939	.50258	1.98972	.52464	1.90607	19
42	.45995	2.17416	.48127	2.07785	.50295	1.98828	.52501	1.90472	18
43	.46030	2.17249	.48163	2.07630	.50331	1.98684	.52538	1.90337	17
44	.46065	2.17083	.48198	2.07476	.50368	1.98540	.52575	1.90203	16
45	.46101	2.16917	.48234	2.07321	.50404	1.98396	.52613	1.90069	15
46	.46136	2.16751	.48270	2.07167	.50441	1.98253	.52650	1.89935	14
47	.46171	2.16585	.48306	2.07014	.50477	1.98110	.52687	1.89801	13
48	.46206	2.16420	.48342	2.06860	.50514	1.97966	.52724	1.89667	12
49	.46242	2.16255	.48378	2.06706	.50550	1.97823	.52761	1.89533	11
50	.46277	2.16090	.48414	2.06553	.50587	1.97681	.52798	1.89400	10
51	.46312	2.15925	.48450	2.06400	.50623	1.97538	.52836	1.89266	9
52	.46348	2.15760	.48486	2.06247	.50660	1.97395	.52873	1.89133	8
53	.46383	2.15596	.48521	2.06094	.50696	1.97253	.52910	1.89000	7
54	.46418	2.15432	.48557	2.05942	.50733	1.97111	.52947	1.88867	6
55	.46454	2.15268	.48593	2.05790	.50769	1.96969	.52985	1.88734	5
56	.46489	2.15104	.48629	2.05637	.50806	1.96827	.53022	1.88602	4
57	.46525	2.14940	.48665	2.05485	.50843	1.96685	.53059	1.88469	3
58	.46560	2.14777	.48701	2.05333	.50879	1.96544	.53096	1.88337	2
59	.46595	2.14614	.48737	2.05182	.50916	1.96402	.53134	1.88205	1
60	.46631	2.14451	.48773	2.05030	.50953	1.96261	.53171	1.88073	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	65°		64°		63°		62°		

′	28°		29°		30°		31°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.53171	1.88073	.55431	1.80405	.57735	1.73205	.60086	1.66428	60
1	.53208	1.87941	.55469	1.80281	.57774	1.73089	.60126	1.66318	59
2	.53246	1.87809	.55507	1.80158	.57813	1.72973	.60165	1.66209	58
3	.53283	1.87677	.55545	1.80034	.57851	1.72857	.60205	1.66099	57
4	.53320	1.87546	.55583	1.79911	.57890	1.72741	.60245	1.65990	56
5	.53358	1.87415	.55621	1.79788	.57929	1.72625	.60284	1.65881	55
6	.53395	1.87283	.55659	1.79665	.57968	1.72509	.60324	1.65772	54
7	.53432	1.87152	.55697	1.79542	.58007	1.72393	.60364	1.65663	53
8	.53470	1.87021	.55736	1.79419	.58046	1.72278	.60403	1.65554	52
9	.53507	1.86891	.55774	1.79296	.58085	1.72163	.60443	1.65445	51
10	.53545	1.86760	.55812	1.79174	.58124	1.72047	.60483	1.65337	50
11	.53582	1.86630	.55850	1.79051	.58162	1.71932	.60522	1.65228	49
12	.53620	1.86499	.55888	1.78929	.58201	1.71817	.60562	1.65120	48
13	.53657	1.86369	.55926	1.78807	.58240	1.71702	.60602	1.65011	47
14	.53694	1.86239	.55964	1.78685	.58279	1.71588	.60642	1.64903	46
15	.53732	1.86109	.56003	1.78563	.58318	1.71473	.60681	1.64795	45
16	.53769	1.85979	.56041	1.78441	.58357	1.71358	.60721	1.64687	44
17	.53807	1.85850	.56079	1.78319	.58396	1.71244	.60761	1.64579	43
18	.53844	1.85720	.56117	1.78198	.58435	1.71129	.60801	1.64471	42
19	.53882	1.85591	.56156	1.78077	.58474	1.71015	.60841	1.64363	41
20	.53920	1.85462	.56194	1.77955	.58513	1.70901	.60881	1.64256	40
21	.53957	1.85333	.56232	1.77834	.58552	1.70787	.60921	1.64148	39
22	.53995	1.85204	.56270	1.77713	.58591	1.70673	.60960	1.64041	38
23	.54032	1.85075	.56309	1.77592	.58631	1.70560	.61000	1.63934	37
24	.54070	1.84946	.56347	1.77471	.58670	1.70446	.61040	1.63826	36
25	.54107	1.84818	.56385	1.77351	.58709	1.70332	.61080	1.63719	35
26	.54145	1.84689	.56424	1.77230	.58748	1.70219	.61120	1.63612	34
27	.54183	1.84561	.56462	1.77110	.58787	1.70106	.61160	1.63505	33
28	.54220	1.84433	.56501	1.76990	.58826	1.69992	.61200	1.63398	32
29	.54258	1.84305	.56539	1.76869	.58865	1.69879	.61240	1.63292	31
30	.54296	1.84177	.56577	1.76749	.58905	1.69766	.61280	1.63185	30
31	.54333	1.84049	.56616	1.76629	.58944	1.69653	.61320	1.63079	29
32	.54371	1.83922	.56654	1.76510	.58983	1.69541	.61360	1.62972	28
33	.54409	1.83794	.56693	1.76390	.59022	1.69428	.61400	1.62866	27
34	.54446	1.83667	.56731	1.76271	.59061	1.69316	.61440	1.62760	26
35	.54484	1.83540	.56769	1.76151	.59101	1.69203	.61480	1.62654	25
36	.54522	1.83413	.56808	1.76032	.59140	1.69091	.61520	1.62548	24
37	.54560	1.83286	.56846	1.75913	.59179	1.68979	.61561	1.62442	23
38	.54597	1.83159	.56885	1.75794	.59218	1.68866	.61601	1.62336	22
39	.54635	1.83033	.56923	1.75675	.59258	1.68754	.61641	1.62230	21
40	.54673	1.82906	.56962	1.75556	.59297	1.68643	.61681	1.62125	20
41	.54711	1.82780	.57000	1.75437	.59336	1.68531	.61721	1.62019	19
42	.54748	1.82654	.57039	1.75319	.59376	1.68419	.61761	1.61914	18
43	.54786	1.82528	.57078	1.75200	.59415	1.68308	.61801	1.61808	17
44	.54824	1.82402	.57116	1.75082	.59454	1.68196	.61842	1.61703	16
45	.54862	1.82276	.57155	1.74964	.59494	1.68085	.61882	1.61598	15
46	.54900	1.82150	.57193	1.74846	.59533	1.67974	.61922	1.61493	14
47	.54938	1.82025	.57232	1.74728	.59573	1.67863	.61962	1.61388	13
48	.54975	1.81899	.57271	1.74610	.59612	1.67752	.62003	1.61283	12
49	.55013	1.81774	.57309	1.74492	.59651	1.67641	.62043	1.61179	11
50	.55051	1.81649	.57348	1.74375	.59691	1.67530	.62083	1.61074	10
51	.55089	1.81524	.57386	1.74257	.59730	1.67419	.62124	1.60970	9
52	.55127	1.81399	.57425	1.74140	.59770	1.67309	.62164	1.60865	8
53	.55165	1.81274	.57464	1.74022	.59809	1.67198	.62204	1.60761	7
54	.55203	1.81150	.57503	1.73905	.59849	1.67088	.62245	1.60657	6
55	.55241	1.81025	.57541	1.73788	.59888	1.66978	.62285	1.60553	5
56	.55279	1.80901	.57580	1.73671	.59928	1.66867	.62325	1.60449	4
57	.55317	1.80777	.57619	1.73555	.59967	1.66757	.62366	1.60345	3
58	.55355	1.80653	.57657	1.73438	.60007	1.66647	.62406	1.60241	2
59	55393	1.80529	.57696	1.73321	.60046	1.66538	.62446	1.60137	1
60	.55431	1.80405	.57735	1.73205	.60086	1.66428	.62487	1.60033	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	61°		60°		59°		58°		

′	32°		33°		34°		35°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.62487	1.60033	.64941	1.53986	.67451	1.48256	.70021	1.42815	60
1	.62527	1.59930	.64982	1.53888	.67493	1.48163	.70064	1.42726	59
2	.62568	1.59826	.65024	1.53791	.67536	1.48070	.70170	1.42638	58
3	.62608	1.59723	.65065	1.53693	.67578	1.47977	.70151	1.42550	57
4	.62649	1.59620	.65106	1.53595	.67620	1.47885	.70194	1.42462	56
5	.62689	1.59517	.65148	1.53497	.67663	1.47792	.70238	1.42374	55
6	.62730	1.59414	.65189	1.53400	.67705	1.47699	.70281	1.42286	54
7	.62770	1.59311	.65231	1.53302	.67748	1.47607	.70325	1.42198	53
8	.62811	1.59208	.65272	1.53205	.67790	1.47514	.70368	1.42110	52
9	.62852	1.59105	.65314	1.53107	.67832	1.47422	.70412	1.42022	51
10	.62892	1.59002	.65355	1.53010	.67875	1.47330	.70455	1.41934	50
11	.62933	1.58900	.65397	1.52913	.67917	1.47238	.70499	1.41847	49
12	.62973	1.58797	.65438	1.52816	.67960	1.47146	.70542	1.41759	48
13	.63014	1.58695	.65480	1.52719	.68002	1.47053	.70586	1.41672	47
14	.63055	1.58593	.65521	1.52622	.68045	1.46962	.70629	1.41584	46
15	.63095	1.58490	.65563	1.52525	.68088	1.46870	.70673	1.41497	45
16	.63136	1.58388	.65604	1.52429	.68130	1.46778	.70717	1.41409	44
17	.63177	1.58286	.65646	1.52332	.68173	1.46686	.70760	1.41322	43
18	.63217	1.58184	.65688	1.52235	.68215	1.46595	.70804	1.41235	42
19	.63258	1.58083	.65729	1.52139	.68258	1.46503	.70848	1.41148	41
20	.63299	1.57981	.65771	1.52043	.68301	1.46411	.70891	1.41061	40
21	.63340	1.57879	.65813	1.51946	.68343	1.46320	.70935	1.40974	39
22	.63380	1.57778	.65854	1.51850	.68386	1.46229	.70979	1.40887	38
23	.63421	1.57676	.65896	1.51754	.68429	1.46137	.71023	1.40800	37
24	.63462	1.57575	.65938	1.51658	.68471	1.46046	.71066	1.40714	36
25	.63503	1.57474	.65980	1.51562	.68514	1.45955	.71110	1.40627	35
26	.63544	1.57372	.66021	1.51466	.68557	1.45864	.71154	1.40540	34
27	.63584	1.57271	.66063	1.51370	.68600	1.45773	.71198	1.40454	33
28	.63625	1.57170	.66105	1.51275	.68642	1.45682	.71242	1.40367	32
29	.63666	1.57069	.66147	1.51179	.68685	1.45592	.71285	1.40281	31
30	.63707	1.56969	.66189	1.51084	.68728	1.45501	.71329	1.40195	30
31	.63748	1.56868	.66230	1.50988	.68771	1.45410	.71373	1.40109	29
32	.63789	1.56767	.66272	1.50893	.68814	1.45320	.71417	1.40022	28
33	.63830	1.56667	.66314	1.50797	.68857	1.45229	.71461	1.39936	27
34	.63871	1.56566	.66356	1.50702	.68900	1.45139	.71505	1.39850	26
35	.63912	1.56466	.66398	1.50607	.68942	1.45049	.71549	1.39764	25
36	.63953	1.56366	.66440	1.50512	.68985	1.44958	.71593	1.39679	24
37	.63994	1.56265	.66482	1.50417	.69028	1.44868	.71637	1.39593	23
38	.64035	1.56165	.66524	1.50322	.69071	1.44778	.71681	1.39507	22
39	.64076	1.56065	.66566	1.50228	.69114	1.44688	.71725	1.39421	21
40	.64117	1.55966	.66608	1.50133	.69157	1.44598	.71769	1.39336	20
41	.64158	1.55866	.66650	1.50038	.69200	1.44508	.71813	1.39250	19
42	.64199	1.55766	.66692	1.49944	.69243	1.44418	.71857	1.39165	18
43	.64240	1.55666	.66734	1.49849	.69286	1.44329	.71901	1.39079	17
44	.64281	1.55567	.66776	1.49755	.69329	1.44239	.71946	1.38994	16
45	.64322	1.55467	.66818	1.49661	.69372	1.44149	.71990	1.38909	15
46	.64363	1.55368	.66860	1.49566	.69416	1.44060	.72034	1.38824	14
47	.64404	1.55269	.66902	1.49472	.69459	1.43970	.72078	1.38738	13
48	.64446	1.55170	.66944	1.49378	.69502	1.43881	.72122	1.38653	12
49	.64487	1.55071	.66986	1.49284	.69545	1.43792	.72167	1.38568	11
50	.64528	1.54972	.67028	1.49190	.69588	1.43703	.72211	1.38484	10
51	.64569	1.54873	.67071	1.49097	.69631	1.43614	.72255	1.38399	9
52	.64610	1.54774	.67113	1.49003	.69675	1.43525	.72299	1.38314	8
53	.64652	1.54675	.67155	1.48909	.69718	1.43436	.72344	1.38229	7
54	.64693	1.54576	.67197	1.48816	.69761	1.43347	.72388	1.38145	6
55	.64734	1.54478	.67239	1.48722	.69804	1.43258	.72432	1.38060	5
56	.64775	1.54379	.67282	1.48629	.69847	1.43169	.72477	1.37976	4
57	.64817	1.54281	.67324	1.48536	.69891	1.43080	.72521	1.37891	3
58	.64858	1.54183	.67366	1.48442	.69934	1.42992	.72565	1.37807	2
59	.64899	1.54085	.67409	1.48349	.69977	1.42903	.72610	1.37722	1
60	.64941	1.53986	.67451	1.48256	.70021	1.42815	.72654	1.37638	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	57°		56°		55°		54°		

′	36°		37°		38°		39°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.72654	1.37638	.75355	1.32704	.78129	1.27994	.80978	1.23490	60
1	.72699	1.37554	.75401	1.32624	.78175	1.27917	.81027	1.23416	59
2	.72743	1.37470	.75447	1.32544	.78222	1.27841	.81075	1.23343	58
3	.72788	1.37386	.75492	1.32464	.78269	1.27764	.81123	1.23270	57
4	.72832	1.37302	.75538	1.32384	.78316	1.27688	.81171	1.23196	56
5	.72877	1.37218	.75584	1.32304	.78363	1.27611	.81220	1.23123	55
6	.72921	1.37134	.75629	1.32224	.78410	1.27535	.81268	1.23050	54
7	.72966	1.37050	.75675	1.32144	.78457	1.27458	.81316	1.22977	53
8	.73010	1.36967	.75721	1.32064	.78504	1.27382	.81364	1.22904	52
9	.73055	1.36883	.75767	1.31984	.78551	1.27306	.81413	1.22831	51
10	.73100	1.36800	.75812	1.31904	.78598	1.27230	.81461	1.22758	50
11	.73144	1.36716	.75858	1.31825	.78645	1.27153	.81510	1.22685	49
12	.73189	1.36633	.75904	1.31745	.78692	1.27077	.81558	1.22612	48
13	.73234	1.36549	.75950	1.31666	.78739	1.27001	.81606	1.22539	47
14	.73278	1.36466	.75996	1.31586	.78786	1.26925	.81655	1.22467	46
15	.73323	1.36383	.76042	1.31507	.78834	1.26849	.81703	1.22394	45
16	.73368	1.36300	.76088	1.31427	.78881	1.26774	.81752	1.22321	44
17	.73413	1.36217	.76134	1.31348	.78928	1.26698	.81800	1.22249	43
18	.73457	1.36134	.76180	1.31269	.78975	1.26622	.81849	1.22176	42
19	.73502	1.36051	.76226	1.31190	.79022	1.26546	.81898	1.22104	41
20	.73547	1.35968	.76272	1.31110	.79070	1.26471	.81946	1.22031	40
21	.73592	1.35885	.76318	1.31031	.79117	1.26395	.81995	1.21959	39
22	.73637	1.35802	.76364	1.30952	.79164	1.26319	.82044	1.21886	38
23	.73681	1.35719	.76410	1.30873	.79212	1.26244	.82092	1.21814	37
24	.73726	1.35637	.76456	1.30795	.79259	1.26169	.82141	1.21742	36
25	.73771	1.35554	.76502	1.30716	.79306	1.26093	.82190	1.21670	35
26	.73816	1.35472	.76548	1.30637	.79354	1.26018	.82238	1.21598	34
27	.73861	1.35389	.76594	1.30558	.79401	1.25943	.82287	1.21526	33
28	.73906	1.35307	.76640	1.30480	.79449	1.25867	.82336	1.21454	32
29	.73951	1.35224	.76686	1.30401	.79496	1.25792	.82385	1.21382	31
30	.73996	1.35142	.76733	1.30323	.79544	1.25717	.82434	1.21310	30
31	.74041	1.35060	.76779	1.30244	.79591	1.25642	.82483	1.21238	29
32	.74086	1.34978	.76825	1.30166	.79639	1.25567	.82531	1.21166	28
33	.74131	1.34896	.76871	1.30087	.79686	1.25492	.82580	1.21094	27
34	.74176	1.34814	.76918	1.30009	.79734	1.25417	.82629	1.21023	26
35	.74221	1.34732	.76964	1.29931	.79781	1.25343	.82678	1.20951	25
36	.74267	1.34650	.77010	1.29853	.79829	1.25268	.82727	1.20879	24
37	.74312	1.34568	.77057	1.29775	.79877	1.25193	.82776	1.20808	23
38	.74357	1.34487	.77103	1.29696	.79924	1.25118	.82825	1.20736	22
39	.74402	1.34405	.77149	1.29618	.79972	1.25044	.82874	1.20665	21
40	.74447	1.34323	.77196	1.29541	.80020	1.24969	.82923	1.20593	20
41	.74492	1.34242	.77242	1.29463	.80067	1.24895	.82972	1.20522	19
42	.74538	1.34160	.77289	1.29385	.80115	1.24820	.83022	1.20451	18
43	.74583	1.34079	.77335	1.29307	.80163	1.24746	.83071	1.20379	17
44	.74628	1.33998	.77382	1.29229	.80211	1.24672	.83120	1.20308	16
45	.74674	1.33916	.77428	1.29152	.80258	1.24597	.83169	1.20237	15
46	.74719	1.33835	.77475	1.29074	.80306	1.24523	.83218	1.20166	14
47	.74764	1.33754	.77521	1.28997	.80354	1.24449	.83268	1.20095	13
48	.74810	1.33673	.77568	1.28919	.80402	1.24375	.83317	1.20024	12
49	.74855	1.33592	.77615	1.28842	.80450	1.24301	.83366	1.19953	11
50	.74900	1.33511	.77661	1.28764	.80498	1.24227	.83415	1.19882	10
51	.74946	1.33430	.77708	1.28687	.80546	1.24153	.83465	1.19811	9
52	.74991	1.33349	.77754	1.28610	.80594	1.24079	.83514	1.19740	8
53	.75037	1.33268	.77801	1.28533	.80642	1.24005	.83564	1.19669	7
54	.75082	1.33187	.77848	1.28456	.80690	1.23931	.83613	1.19599	6
55	.75128	1.33107	.77895	1.28379	.80738	1.23858	.83662	1.19528	5
56	.75173	1.33026	.77941	1.28302	.80786	1.23784	.83712	1.19457	4
57	.75219	1.32946	.77988	1.28225	.80834	1.23710	.83761	1.19387	3
58	.75264	1.32865	.78035	1.28148	.80882	1.23637	.83811	1.19316	2
59	.75310	1.32785	.78082	1.28071	.80930	1.23563	.83860	1.19246	1
60	.75355	1.32704	.78129	1.27994	.80978	1.23490	.83910	1.19175	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	53°		52°		51°		50°		

′	40°		41°		42°		43°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.83910	1.19175	.86929	1.15037	.90040	1.11061	.93252	1.07237	60
1	.83960	1.19105	.86980	1.14969	.90093	1.10996	.93306	1.07174	59
2	.84009	1.19035	.87031	1.14902	.90146	1.10931	.93360	1.07112	58
3	.84059	1.18964	.87082	1.14834	.90199	1.10867	.93415	1.07049	57
4	.84108	1.18894	.87133	1.14767	.90251	1.10802	.93469	1.06987	56
5	.84158	1.18824	.87184	1.14699	.90304	1.10737	.93524	1.06925	55
6	.84208	1.18754	.87236	1.14632	.90357	1.10672	.93578	1.06862	54
7	.84258	1.18684	.87287	1.14565	.90410	1.10607	.93633	1.06800	53
8	.84307	1.18614	.87238	1.14498	.90463	1.10543	.93688	1.06738	52
9	.84357	1.18544	.87389	1.14430	.90516	1.10478	.93742	1.06676	51
10	.84407	1.18474	.87441	1.14363	.90569	1.10414	.93797	1.06613	50
11	.84457	1.18404	.87492	1.14296	.90621	1.10349	.93852	1.06551	49
12	.84507	1.18334	.87543	1.14229	.90674	1.10285	.93906	1.06489	48
13	.84556	1.18264	.87595	1.14162	.90727	1.10220	.93961	1.06427	47
14	.84606	1.18194	.87646	1.14095	.90781	1.10156	.94016	1.06365	46
15	.84656	1.18125	.87698	1.14028	.90834	1.10091	.94071	1.06303	45
16	.84706	1.18055	.87749	1.13961	.90887	1.10027	.94125	1.06241	44
17	.84756	1.17986	.87801	1.13894	.90940	1.09963	.94180	1.06179	43
18	.84806	1.17916	.87852	1.13828	.90993	1.09899	.94235	1.06117	42
19	.84856	1.17846	.87904	1.13761	.91046	1.09834	.94290	1.06056	41
20	.84906	1.17777	.87955	1.13694	.91099	1.09770	.94345	1.05994	40
21	.84956	1.17708	.88007	1.13627	.91153	1.09706	.94400	1.05932	39
22	.85006	1.17638	.88059	1.13561	.91206	1.09642	.94455	1.05870	38
23	.85057	1.17569	.88110	1.13494	.91259	1.09578	.94510	1.05809	37
24	.85107	1.17500	.88162	1.13428	.91313	1.09514	.94565	1.05747	36
25	.85157	1.17430	.88214	1.13361	.91366	1.09450	.94620	1.05685	35
26	.85207	1.17361	.88265	1.13295	.91419	1.09386	.94676	1.05624	34
27	.85257	1.17292	.88317	1.13228	.91473	1.09322	.94731	1.05562	33
28	.85308	1.17223	.88369	1.13162	.91526	1.09258	.94786	1.05501	32
29	.85358	1.17154	.88421	1.13096	.91580	1.09195	.94841	1.05439	31
30	.85408	1.17085	.88473	1.13029	.91633	1.09131	.94896	1.05378	30
31	.85458	1.17016	.88524	1.12963	.91687	1.09067	.94952	1.05317	29
32	.85509	1.16947	.88576	1.12897	.91740	1.09003	.95007	1.05255	28
33	.85559	1.16878	.88628	1.12831	.91794	1.08940	.95062	1.05194	27
34	.85609	1.16809	.88680	1.12765	.91847	1.08876	.95118	1.05133	26
35	.85660	1.16741	.88732	1.12699	.91901	1.08813	.95173	1.05072	25
36	.85710	1.16672	.88784	1.12633	.91955	1.08749	.95229	1.05010	24
37	.85761	1.16603	.88836	1.12567	.92008	1.08686	.95284	1.04949	23
38	.85811	1.16535	.88888	1.12501	.92062	1.08622	.95340	1.04888	22
39	.85862	1.16466	.88940	1.12435	.92116	1.08559	.95395	1.04827	21
40	.85912	1.16398	.88992	1.12369	.92170	1.08496	.95451	1.04766	20
41	.85963	1.16329	.89045	1.12303	.92224	1.08432	.95506	1.04705	19
42	.86014	1.16261	.89097	1.12238	.92277	1.08369	.95562	1.04644	18
43	.86064	1.16192	.89149	1.12172	.92331	1.08306	.95618	1.04583	17
44	.86115	1.16124	.89201	1.12106	.92385	1.08243	.95673	1.04522	16
45	.86166	1.16056	.89253	1.12041	.92439	1.08179	.95729	1.04461	15
46	.86216	1.15987	.89306	1.11975	.92493	1.08116	.95785	1.04401	14
47	.86267	1.15919	.89358	1.11909	.92547	1.08053	.95841	1.04340	13
48	.86318	1.15851	.89410	1.11844	.92601	1.07990	.95897	1.04279	12
49	.86368	1.15783	.89463	1.11778	.92655	1.07927	.95952	1.04218	11
50	.86419	1.15715	.89515	1.11713	.92709	1.07864	.96008	1.04158	10
51	.86470	1.15647	.89567	1.11648	.92763	1.07801	.96064	1.04097	9
52	.86521	1.15579	.89620	1.11582	.92817	1.07738	.96120	1.04036	8
53	.86572	1.15511	.89672	1.11517	.92872	1.07676	.96176	1.03976	7
54	.86623	1.15443	.89725	1.11452	.92926	1.07613	.96232	1.03915	6
55	.86674	1.15375	.89777	1.11387	.92980	1.07550	.96288	1.03855	5
56	.86725	1.15308	.89830	1.11321	.93034	1.07487	.96344	1.03794	4
57	.86776	1.15240	.89883	1.11256	.93088	1.07425	.96400	1.03734	3
58	.86827	1.15172	.89935	1.11191	.93143	1.07362	.96457	1.03674	2
59	.86878	1.15104	.89988	1.11126	.93197	1.07299	.96513	1.03613	1
60	.86929	1.15037	.90040	1.11061	.93252	1.07237	.96569	1.03553	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	49°		48°		47°		46°		

′	44°		′	′	44°		′	′	44°		′
	Tang	Cotang			Tang	Cotang			Tang	Cotang	
0	.96569	1.03553	60	20	.97700	1.02355	40	40	.98843	1.01170	20
1	.96625	1.03493	59	21	.97756	1.02295	39	41	.98901	1.01112	19
2	.96681	1.03433	58	22	.97813	1.02236	38	42	.98958	1.01053	18
3	.96738	1.03372	57	23	.97870	1.02176	37	43	.99016	1.00994	17
4	.96794	1.03312	56	24	.97927	1.02117	36	44	.99073	1.00935	16
5	.96850	1.03252	55	25	.97984	1.02057	35	45	.99131	1.00876	15
6	.96907	1.03192	54	26	.98041	1.01998	34	46	.99189	1.00818	14
7	.96963	1.03132	53	27	.98098	1.01939	33	47	.99247	1.00759	13
8	.97020	1.03072	52	28	.98155	1.01879	32	48	.99304	1.00701	12
9	.97076	1.03012	51	29	.98213	1.01820	31	49	.99362	1.00642	11
10	.97133	1.02952	50	30	.98270	1.01761	30	50	.99420	1.00583	10
11	.97189	1.02892	49	31	.98327	1.01702	29	51	.99478	1.00525	9
12	.97246	1.02832	48	32	.98384	1.01642	28	52	.99536	1.00467	8
13	.97302	1.02772	47	33	.98441	1.01583	27	53	.99594	1.00408	7
14	.97359	1.02713	46	34	.98499	1.01524	26	54	.99652	1.00350	6
15	.97416	1.02653	45	35	.98556	1.01465	25	55	.99710	1.00291	5
16	.97472	1.02593	44	36	.98613	1.01406	24	56	.99768	1.00233	4
17	.97529	1.02533	43	37	.98671	1.01347	23	57	.99826	1.00175	3
18	.97586	1.02474	42	38	.98728	1.01288	22	58	.99884	1.00116	2
19	.97643	1.02414	41	39	.98786	1.01229	21	59	.99942	1.00058	1
20	.97700	1.02355	40	40	.98843	1.01170	20	60	1.00000	1.00000	0
	Cotang	Tang			Cotang	Tang			Cotang	Tang	
′	45°		′	′	45°		′	′	45°		′

TABLE XVI.—SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE ROOTS.

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
1	1	1	1.0000000	1.0000000	1.000000000
2	4	8	1.4142136	1.2599210	.500000000
3	9	27	1.7320508	1.4422496	.333333333
4	16	64	2.0000000	1.5874011	.250000000
5	25	125	2.2360680	1.7099759	.200000000
6	36	216	2.4494897	1.8171206	.166666667
7	49	343	2.6457513	1.9129312	.142857143
8	64	512	2.8284271	2.0000000	.125000000
9	81	729	3.0000000	2.0800837	.111111111
10	100	1000	3.1622777	2.1544347	.100000000
11	121	1331	3.3166248	2.2239801	.090909091
12	144	1728	3.4641016	2.2894286	.083333333
13	169	2197	3.6055513	2.3513347	.076923077
14	196	2744	3.7416574	2.4101422	.071428571
15	225	3375	3.8729833	2.4662121	.066666667
16	256	4096	4.0000000	2.5198421	.062500000
17	289	4913	4.1231056	2.5712816	.058823529
18	324	5832	4.2426407	2.6207414	.055555556
19	361	6859	4.3588989	2.6684016	.052631579
20	400	8000	4.4721360	2.7144177	.050000000
21	441	9261	4.5825757	2.7589243	.047619048
22	484	10648	4.6904158	2.8020393	.045454545
23	529	12167	4.7958315	2.8438670	.043478261
24	576	13824	4.8989795	2.8844991	.041666667
25	625	15625	5.0000000	2.9240177	.040000000
26	676	17576	5.0990195	2.9624960	.038461538
27	729	19683	5.1961524	3.0000000	.037037037
28	784	21952	5.2915026	3.0365889	.035714286
29	841	24389	5.3851648	3.0723168	.034482759
30	900	27000	5.4772256	3.1072325	.033333333
31	961	29791	5.5677644	3.1413806	.032258065
32	1024	32768	5.6568542	3.1748021	.031250000
33	1089	35937	5.7445626	3.2075343	030303030
34	1156	39304	5.8309519	3.2396118	.029411765
35	1225	42875	5.9160798	3.2710663	.028571429
36	1296	46656	6.0000000	3.3019272	.027777778
37	1369	50653	6.0827625	3.3322218	.027027027
38	1444	54872	6.1644140	3.3619754	.026315789
39	1521	59319	6.2449980	3.3912114	.025641026
40	1600	64000	6.3245553	3.4199519	.025000000
41	1681	68921	6.4031242	3.4482172	.024390244
42	1764	74088	6.4807407	3.4760266	.023809524
43	1849	79507	6.5574385	3.5033981	.023255814
44	1936	85184	6.6332496	3.5303483	.022727273
45	2025	91125	6.7082039	3.5568933	.022222222
46	2116	97336	6.7823300	3.5830479	.021739130
47	2209	103823	6.8556546	3.6088261	.021276600
48	2304	110592	6.9282032	3.6342411	.020833333
49	2401	117649	7.0000000	3.6593057	.020408163
50	2500	125000	7.0710678	3.6840314	.020000000
51	2601	132651	7.1414284	3.7084298	.019607843
52	2704	140608	7.2111026	3.7325111	.019230769
53	2809	148877	7.2801099	3.7562858	.018867925
54	2916	157464	7.3484692	3.7797631	.018518519
55	3025	166375	7.4161985	3.8029525	.018181818
56	3136	175616	7.4833148	3.8258624	.017857143
57	3249	185193	7.5498344	3.8485011	.017543860
58	3364	195112	7.6157731	3.8708766	.017241379
59	3481	205379	7.6811457	3.8929965	.016949153
60	3600	216000	7.7459667	3.9148676	.016666667
61	3721	226981	7.8102497	3.9364972	.016393443
62	3844	238328	7.8740079	3.9578915	.016129032

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocal
63	3969	250047	7.9372539	3.9790571	.0158730
64	4096	262144	8.0000000	4.0000000	.01562500
65	4225	274625	8.0622577	4.0207256	.0153846
66	4356	287496	8.1240384	4.0412401	.0151515
67	4489	300763	8.1853528	4.0615480	.0149253
68	4624	314432	8.2462113	4.0816551	.01470588
69	4761	328509	8.3066239	4.1015661	.01449275
70	4900	343000	8.3666003	4.1212853	.01428571
71	5041	357911	8.4261498	4.1408178	.01408450
72	5184	373248	8.4852814	4.1601676	.01388888
73	5329	389017	8.5440037	4.1793390	.01369863
74	5476	405224	8.6023253	4.1983364	.0135135
75	5625	421875	8.6602540	4.2171633	.01333333
76	5776	438976	8.7177979	4.2358236	.01315789
77	5929	456533	8.7749644	4.2543210	.0129870
78	6084	474552	8.8317609	4.2726586	.01282051
79	6241	493039	8.8881944	4.2908404	.01265822
80	6400	512000	8.9442719	4.3088695	.01250000
81	6561	531441	9.0000000	4.3267487	.0123456
82	6724	551368	9.0553851	4.3444815	.01219512
83	6889	571787	9.1104336	4.3620707	.01204819
84	7056	592704	9.1651514	4.3795191	.01190476
85	7225	614125	9.2195445	4.3968296	.01176470
86	7396	636056	9.2736185	4.4140049	.01162790
87	7569	658503	9.3273791	4.4310476	.01149425
88	7744	681472	9.3808315	4.4479602	.01136363
89	7921	704969	9.4339811	4.4647451	.01123595
90	8100	729000	9.4868330	4.4814047	.01111111
91	8281	753571	9.5393920	4.4979414	.01098901
92	8464	778688	9.5916630	4.5143574	.01086956
93	8649	804357	9.6436508	4.5306549	.01075268
94	8836	830584	9.6953597	4.5468359	.01063829
95	9025	857375	9.7467943	4.5629026	.01052631
96	9216	884736	9.7979590	4.5788570	.01041666
97	9409	912673	9.8488578	4.5947009	.01030927
98	9604	941192	9.8994949	4.6104363	.01020408
99	9801	970299	9.9498744	4.6260650	.01010101
100	10000	1000000	10.0000000	4.6415888	.01000000
101	10201	1030301	10.0498756	4.6570095	.00990099
102	10404	1061208	10.0995049	4.6723287	.00980392
103	10609	1092727	10.1488916	4.6875482	.00970873
104	10816	1124864	10.1980390	4.7026694	.00961538
105	11025	1157625	10.2469508	4.7176940	.00952381
106	11236	1191016	10.2956301	4.7326235	.00943396
107	11449	1225043	10.3440804	4.7474594	.00934579
108	11664	1259712	10.3923048	4.7622032	.00 25925
109	11881	1295029	10.4403065	4.7768562	.00917431
110	12100	1331000	10.4880885	4.7914199	.00909090
111	12321	1367631	10.5356538	4.8058955	.00900900
112	12544	1404928	10.5830052	4.8202845	.0089285
113	12769	1442897	10.6301458	4.8345881	.00884955
114	12996	1481544	10.6770783	4.8488076	.00877193
115	13225	1520875	10.7238053	4.8629442	.00869565
116	13456	1560896	10.7703296	4.8769990	.00862069
117	13689	1601613	10.8166538	4.8909732	.00854700
118	13924	1643032	10.8627805	4.9048681	.0084745
119	14161	1685159	10.9087121	4.9186847	.00840336
120	14400	1728000	10.9544512	4.9324242	.00833333
121	14641	1771561	11.00 0000	4.9460874	.00826446
122	14884	1815848	11.0453610	4.9596757	.00819672
123	15129	1860867	11.0905365	4.9731898	.00813008
124	15376	1906624	11.1355287	4.9866310	.00806451

TABLE XVI.—SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE ROOTS.

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
125	15625	1953125	11.1803399	5.0000000	.008000000
126	15876	2000376	11.2249722	5.0132979	.007936508
127	16129	2048383	11.2694277	5.0265257	.007874016
128	16384	2097152	11.3137085	5.0396842	.007812500
129	16641	2146689	11.3578167	5.0527743	.007751938
130	16900	2197000	11.4017543	5.0657970	.007692308
131	17161	2248091	11.4455231	5.0787531	.007633588
132	17424	2299968	11.4891253	5.0916434	.007575758
133	17689	2352637	11.5325626	5.1044687	.007518797
134	17956	2406104	11.5758369	5.1172299	.007462687
135	18225	2460375	11.6189500	5.1299278	.007407407
136	18496	2515456	11.6619038	5.1425632	.007352941
137	18769	2571353	11.7046999	5.1551367	.007299270
138	19044	2628072	11.7473401	5.1676493	.007246377
139	19321	2685619	11.7898261	5.1801015	.007194245
140	19600	2744000	11.8321596	5.1924941	.007142857
141	19881	2803221	11.8743421	5.2048279	.007092199
142	20164	2863288	11.9163753	5.2171034	.007042254
143	20449	2924207	11.9582607	5.2293215	.006993007
144	20736	2985984	12.0000000	5.2414828	.006944444
145	21025	3048625	12.0415946	5.2535879	.006896552
146	21316	3112136	12.0830460	5.2656374	.006849315
147	21609	3176523	12.1243557	5.2776321	.006802721
148	21904	3241792	12.1655251	5.2895725	.006756757
149	22201	3307949	12.2065556	5.3014592	.006711409
150	22500	3375000	12.2474487	5.3132928	.006666667
151	22801	3442951	12.2882057	5.3250740	.006622517
152	23104	3511808	12.3288280	5.3368033	.006578947
153	23409	3581577	12.3693169	5.3484812	.006535948
154	23716	3652264	12.4096736	5.3601084	.006493506
155	24025	3723875	12.4498996	5.3716854	.006451613
156	24336	3796416	12.4899960	5.3832126	.006410256
157	24649	3869893	12.5299641	5.3946907	.006369427
158	24964	3944312	12.5698051	5.4061202	.006329114
159	25281	4019679	12.6095202	5.4175015	.006289308
160	25600	4096000	12.6491106	5.4288352	.006250000
161	25921	4173281	12.6885775	5.4401218	.006211180
162	26244	4251528	12.7279221	5.4513618	.006172840
163	26569	4330747	12.7671453	5.4625556	.006134969
164	26896	4410944	12.8062485	5.4737037	.006097561
165	27225	4492125	12.8452326	5.4848066	.006060606
166	27556	4574296	12.8840987	5.4958647	.006024096
167	27889	4657463	12.9228480	5.5068784	.005988024
168	28224	4741632	12.9614814	5.5178484	.005952381
169	28561	4826809	13.0000000	5.5287748	.005917160
170	28900	4913000	13.0384048	5.5396583	.005882353
171	29241	5000211	13.0766968	5.5504991	.005847953
172	29584	5088448	13.1148770	5.5612978	.005813953
173	29929	5177717	13.1529464	5.5720546	.005780347
174	30276	5268024	13.1909060	5.5827702	.005747126
175	30625	5359375	13.2287566	5.5934447	.005714286
176	30976	5451776	13.2664992	5.6040787	.005681818
177	31329	5545233	13.3041347	5.6146724	.005649718
178	31684	5639752	13.3416641	5.6252263	.005617978
179	32041	5735339	13.3790882	5.6357408	.005586592
180	32400	5832000	13.4164079	5.6462162	.005555556
181	32761	5929741	13.4536240	5.6566528	.005524862
182	33124	6028568	13.4907376	5.6670511	.005494505
183	33489	6128487	13.5277493	5.6774114	.005464481
184	33856	6229504	13.5646600	5.6877340	.005434783
185	34225	6331625	13.6014705	5.6980192	.005405405
186	34596	6434856	13.6381817	5.7082675	.005376344

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
187	34969	6539203	13.6747943	5.7184791	.005347594
188	35344	6644672	13.7113092	5.7286543	.005319149
189	35721	6751269	13.7477271	5.7387936	.005291005
190	36100	6859000	13.7840488	5.7488971	.005263158
191	36481	6967871	13.8202750	5.7589652	.005235602
192	36864	7077888	13.8564065	5.7689982	.005208333
193	37249	7189057	13.8924440	5.7789966	.005181347
194	37636	7301384	13.9283883	5.7889604	.005154639
195	38025	7414875	13.9642400	5.7988900	.005128205
196	38416	7529536	14.0000000	5.8087857	.005102041
197	38809	7645373	14.0356688	5.8186479	.005076142
198	39204	7762392	14.0712473	5.8284767	.005050505
199	39601	7880599	14.1067360	5.8382725	.005025126
200	40000	8000000	14.1421356	5.8480355	.005000000
201	40401	8120601	14.1774469	5.8577660	.004975124
202	40804	8242408	14.2126704	5.8674643	.004950495
203	41209	8365427	14.2478068	5.8771307	.004926108
204	41616	8489664	14.2828569	5.8867653	.004901961
205	42025	8615125	14.3178211	5.8963685	.004878049
206	42436	8741816	14.3527001	5.9059406	.004854369
207	42849	8869743	14.3874946	5.9154817	.004830918
208	43264	8998912	14.4222051	5.9249921	.004807692
209	43681	9129329	14.4568323	5.9344721	.004784689
210	44100	9261000	14.4913767	5.9439220	.004761905
211	44521	9393931	14.5258390	5.9533418	.004739336
212	44944	9528128	14.5602198	5.9627320	.004716981
213	45369	9663597	14.5945195	5.9720926	.004694836
214	45796	9800344	14.6287388	5.9814240	.004672897
215	46225	9938375	14.6628783	5.9907264	.004651163
216	46656	10077696	14.6969385	6.0000000	.004629630
217	47089	10218313	14.7309199	6.0092450	.004608295
218	47524	10360232	14.7648231	6.0184617	.004587156
219	47961	10503459	14.7986486	6.0276502	.004566210
220	48400	10648000	14.8323970	6.0368107	.004545455
221	48841	10793861	14.8660687	6.0459435	.004524887
222	49284	10941048	14.8996644	6.0550489	.004504505
223	49729	11089567	14.9331845	6.0641270	.004484305
224	50176	11239424	14.9666295	6.0731779	.004464286
225	50625	11390625	15.0000000	6.0822020	.004444444
226	51076	11543176	15.0332964	6.0911994	.004424779
227	51529	11697083	15.0665192	6.1001702	.004405286
228	51984	11852352	15.0996689	6.1091147	.004385965
229	52441	12008989	15.1327460	6.1180332	.004366812
230	52900	12167000	15.1657509	6.1269257	.004347826
231	53361	12326391	15.1986842	6.1357924	.004329004
232	53824	12487168	15.2315462	6.1446337	.004310345
233	54289	12649337	15.2643375	6.1534495	.004291845
234	54756	12812904	15.2970585	6.1622401	.004273504
235	55225	12977875	15.3297097	6.1710058	.004255319
236	55696	13144256	15.3622915	6.1797466	.004237288
237	56169	13312053	15.3948043	6.1884628	.004219409
238	56644	13481272	15.4272486	6.1971544	.004201681
239	57121	13651919	15.4596248	6.2058218	.004184100
240	57600	13824000	15.4919334	6.2144650	.004166667
241	58081	13997521	15.5241747	6.2230843	.004149378
242	58564	14172488	15.5563492	6.2316797	.004132231
243	59049	14348907	15.5884573	6.2402515	.004115226
244	59536	14526784	15.6204994	6.2487998	.004098361
245	60025	14706125	15.6524758	6.2573248	.004081633
246	60516	14886936	15.6843871	6.2658266	.004065041
247	61009	15069223	15.7162336	6.2743054	.004048583
248	61504	15252992	15.7480157	6.2827613	.004032258

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
249	62001	15438249	15.7797338	6.2911946	.004016064
250	62500	15625000	15.8113883	6.2996053	.004000000
251	63001	15813251	15.8429795	6.3079935	.003984064
252	63504	16003008	15.8745079	6.3163596	.003968254
253	64009	16194277	15.9059737	6.3247035	.003952569
254	64516	16387064	15.9373775	6.3330256	.003937008
255	65025	16581375	15.9687194	6.3413257	.003921569
256	65536	16777216	16.0000000	6.3496042	.003906250
257	66049	16974593	16.0312195	6.3578611	.003891051
258	66564	17173512	16.0623784	6.3660968	.003875969
259	67081	17373979	16.0934769	6.3743111	.003861004
260	67600	17576000	16.1245155	6.3825043	.003846154
261	68121	17779581	16.1554944	6.3906765	.003831418
262	68644	17984728	16.1864141	6.3988279	.003816794
263	69169	18191447	16.2172747	6.4069585	.003802281
264	69696	18399744	16.2480768	6.4150687	.003787879
265	70225	18609625	16.2788206	6.4231583	.003773585
266	70756	18821096	16.3095064	6.4312276	.003759398
267	71289	19034163	16.3401346	6.4392767	.003745318
268	71824	19248832	16.3707055	6.4473057	.003731343
269	72361	19465109	16.4012195	6.4553148	.003717472
270	72900	19683000	16.4316767	6.4633041	.003703704
271	73441	19902511	16.4620776	6.4712736	.003690037
272	73984	20123648	16.4924225	6.4792236	.003676471
273	74529	20346417	16.5227116	6.4871541	.003663004
274	75076	20570824	16.5529454	6.4950653	.003649635
275	75625	20796875	16.5831240	6.5029572	.003636364
276	76176	21024576	16.6132477	6.5108300	.003623188
277	76729	21253933	16.6433170	6.5186839	.003610108
278	77284	21484952	16.6733320	6.5265189	.003597122
279	77841	21717639	16.7032931	6.5343351	.003584229
280	78400	21952000	16.7332005	6.5421326	.003571429
281	78961	22188041	16.7630546	6.5499116	.003558719
282	79524	22425768	16.7928556	6.5576722	.003546099
283	80089	22665187	16.8226038	6.5654144	.003533569
284	80656	22906304	16.8522995	6.5731385	.003521127
285	81225	23149125	16.8819430	6.5808443	.003508772
286	81796	23393656	16.9115345	6.5885323	.003496503
287	82369	23639903	16.9410743	6.5962023	.003484321
288	82944	23887872	16.9705627	6.6038545	.003472222
289	83521	24137569	17.0000000	6.6114890	.003460208
290	84100	24389000	17.0293864	6.6191060	.003448276
291	84681	24642171	17.0587221	6.6267054	.003436426
292	85264	24897088	17.0880075	6.6342874	.003424658
293	85849	25153757	17.1172428	6.6418522	.003412969
294	86436	25412184	17.1464282	6.6493998	.003401361
295	87025	25672375	17.1755640	6.6569302	.003389831
296	87616	25934336	17.2046505	6.6644437	.003378378
297	88209	26198073	17.2336879	6.6719403	.003367003
298	88804	26463592	17.2626765	6.6794200	.003355705
299	89401	26730899	17.2916165	6.6868831	.003344482
300	90000	27000000	17.3205081	6.6943295	.003333333
301	90601	27270901	17.3493516	6.7017593	.003322259
302	91204	27543608	17.3781472	6.7091729	.003311258
303	91809	27818127	17.4068952	6.7165700	.003300330
304	92416	28094464	17.4355958	6.7239508	.003289474
305	93025	28372625	17.4642492	6.7313155	.003278689
306	93636	28652616	17.4928557	6.7386641	.003267974
307	94249	28934443	17.5214155	6.7459967	.003257329
308	94864	29218112	17.5499288	6.7533134	.003246753
309	95481	29503629	17.5783958	6.7606143	.003236246
310	96100	29791000	17.6068169	6.7678995	.003225806

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciproca
311	96721	30080231	17.6351921	6.7751690	.00321543
312	97344	30371328	17.6635217	6.7824229	.00320512
313	97969	30664297	17.6918060	6.7896613	.00319488
314	98596	30959144	17.7200451	6.7968844	.00318471
315	99225	31255875	17.7482393	6.8040921	.00317460
316	99856	31554496	17.7763888	6.8112847	.00316455
317	100489	31855013	17.8044938	6.8184620	.00315457
318	101124	32157432	17.8325545	6.8256242	.00314465
319	101761	32461759	17.8605711	6.8327714	.00313479
320	102400	32768000	17.8885438	6.8399037	.00312500
321	103041	33076161	17.9164729	6.8470213	.00311526
322	103684	33386248	17.9443584	6.8541240	.00310559
323	104329	33698267	17.9722008	6.8612120	.00309597
324	104976	34012224	18.0000000	6.8682855	.00308642
325	105625	34328125	18.0277564	6.8753443	.00307692
326	106276	34645976	18.0554701	6.8823888	.00306748
327	106929	34965783	18.0831413	6.8894188	.00305810
328	107584	35287552	18.1107703	6.8964345	.00304878
329	108241	35611289	18.1383571	6.9034359	.00303951
330	108900	35937000	18.1659021	6.9104232	.00303030
331	109561	36264691	18.1934054	6.9173964	.00302114
332	110224	36594368	18.2208672	6.9243556	.00301204
333	110889	36926037	18.2482876	6.9313008	.00300300
334	111556	37259704	18.2756669	6.9382321	.00299401
335	112225	37595375	18.3030052	6.9451496	.00298507
336	112896	37933056	18.3303028	6.9520533	.00297619
337	113569	38272753	18.3575598	6.9589434	.00296735
338	114244	38614472	18.3847763	6.9658198	.00295858
339	114921	38958219	18.4119526	6.9726826	.00294985
340	115600	39304000	18.4390889	6.9795321	.00294117
341	116281	39651821	18.4661853	6.9863681	.00293255
342	116964	40001688	18.4932420	6.9931906	.00292397
343	117649	40353607	18.5202592	7.0000000	.00291545
344	118336	40707584	18.5472370	7.0067962	.00290697
345	119025	41063625	18.5741756	7 0135791	.00289855
346	119716	41421736	18.6010752	7.0203490	.00289017
347	120409	41781923	18.6279360	7.0271058	.00288184
348	121104	42144192	18.6547581	7.0338497	.00287356
349	121801	42508549	18.6815417	7.0405806	.00286533
350	122500	42875000	18.7082869	7.0472987	.00285714
351	123201	43243551	18.7349940	7.0540041	.00284900
352	123904	43614208	18.7616630	7.0606967	.00284090
353	124609	43986977	18.7882942	7.0673767	.00283286
354	125316	44361864	18.8148877	7.0740440	.00282485
355	126025	44738875	18.8414437	7.0806988	.00281690
356	126736	45118016	18.8679623	7.0873411	.00280898
357	127449	45499293	18.8944436	7.0939709	.00280112
358	128164	45882712	18.9208879	7.1005885	.00279329
359	128881	46268279	18.9472953	7.1071937	.00278551
360	129600	46656000	18.9736660	7.1137866	.00277777
361	130321	47045881	19 0000000	7.1203674	.00277008
362	131044	47437928	19.0262976	7.1269360	.00276243
363	131769	47832147	19.0525589	7.1334925	.00275482
364	132496	48228544	19.0787840	7.1400370	.00274725
365	133225	48627125	19.1049732	7.1465695	.00273972
366	133956	49027896	19.1311265	7.1530901	.00273224
367	134689	49430863	19.1572441	7.1595988	.00272479
368	135424	49836032	19.1833261	7.1660957	.00271739
369	136161	50243409	19.2093727	7.1725809	.00271002
370	136900	50653000	19.2353841	7.1790544	.00270270
371	137641	51064811	19.2613603	7.1855162	.00269541
372	138384	51478848	19.2873015	7.1919663	.00268817

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
373	139129	51895117	19.3132079	7.1984050	.002680965
374	139876	52313624	19.3390796	7.2048322	.002673797
375	140625	52734375	19.3649167	7.2112479	.002666667
376	141376	53157376	19.3907194	7.2176522	.002659574
377	142129	53582633	19.4164878	7.2240450	.002652520
378	142884	54010152	19.4422221	7.2304268	.002645503
379	143641	54439939	19.4679223	7.2367972	.002638522
380	144400	54872000	19.4935887	7.2431565	.002631579
381	145161	55306341	19.5192213	7.2495045	.002624672
382	145924	55742968	19.5448203	7.2558415	.002617801
383	146689	56181887	19.5703858	7.2621675	.002610966
384	147456	56623104	19.5959179	7.2684824	.002604167
385	148225	57066625	19.6214169	7.2747864	.002597403
386	148996	57512456	19.6468827	7.2810794	.002590674
387	149769	57960603	19.6723156	7.2873617	.002583979
388	150544	58411072	19.6977156	7.2936330	.002577320
389	151321	58863869	19.7230829	7.2998936	.002570694
390	152100	59319000	19.7484177	7.3061436	.002564103
391	152881	59776471	19.7737199	7.3123828	.002557545
392	153664	60236288	19.7989899	7.3186114	.002551020
393	154449	60698457	19.8242276	7.3248295	.002544529
394	155236	61162984	19.8494332	7.3310369	.002538071
395	156025	61629875	19.8746069	7.3372339	.002531646
396	156816	62099136	19.8997487	7.3434205	.002525253
397	157609	62570773	19.9248588	7.3495966	.002518892
398	158404	63044792	19.9499373	7.3557624	.002512563
399	159201	63521199	19.9749844	7.3619178	.002506266
400	160000	64000000	20.0000000	7.3680630	.002500000
401	160801	64481201	20.0249844	7.3741979	.002493766
402	161604	64964808	20.0499377	7.3803227	.002487562
403	162409	65450827	20.0748599	7.3864373	.002481390
404	163216	65939264	20.0997512	7.3925418	.002475248
405	164025	66430125	20.1246118	7.3986363	.002469136
406	164836	66923416	20.1494417	7.4047206	.002463054
407	165649	67419143	20.1742410	7.4107950	.002457002
408	166464	67917312	20.1990099	7.4168595	.002450980
409	167281	68417929	20.2237484	7.4229142	.002444988
410	168100	68921000	20.2484567	7.4289589	.002439024
411	168921	69426531	20.2731349	7.4349938	.002433090
412	169744	69934528	20.2977831	7.4410189	.002427184
413	170569	70444997	20.3224014	7.4470342	.002421308
414	171396	70957944	20.3469899	7.4530399	.002415459
415	172225	71473375	20.3715488	7.4590359	.002409639
416	173056	71991296	20.3960781	7.4650223	.002403846
417	173889	72511713	20.4205779	7.4709991	.002398082
418	174724	73034632	20.4450483	7.4769664	.002392344
419	175561	73560059	20.4694895	7.4829242	.002386635
420	176400	74088000	20.4939015	7.4888724	.002380952
421	177241	74618461	20.5182845	7.4948113	.002375297
422	178084	75151448	20.5426386	7.5007406	.002369668
423	178929	75686967	20.5669638	7.5066607	.002364066
424	179776	76225024	20.5912603	7.5125715	.002358491
425	180625	76765625	20.6155281	7.5184730	.002352941
426	181476	77308776	20.6397674	7.5243652	.002347418
427	182329	77854483	20.6639783	7.5302482	.002341920
428	183184	78402752	20.6881609	7.5361221	.002336449
429	184041	78953589	20.7123152	7.5419867	.002331002
430	184900	79507000	20.7364414	7.5478423	.002325581
431	185761	80062991	20.7605395	7.5536888	.002320186
432	186624	80621568	20.7846097	7.5595263	.002314815
433	187489	81182737	20.8086520	7.5653548	.002309469
434	188356	81746504	20.8326667	7.5711743	.002304147

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
435	189225	82312875	20.8566536	7.5769849	.002298851
436	190096	82881856	20.8806130	7.5827865	.002293578
437	190969	83453453	20.9045450	7.5885793	.002288330
438	191844	84027672	20.9284495	7.5943633	.002283105
439	192721	84604519	20.9523268	7.6001385	.002277904
440	193600	85184000	20.9761770	7.6059049	.002272727
441	194481	85766121	21.0000000	7.6116626	.002267574
442	195364	86350888	21.0237960	7.6174116	.002262443
443	196249	86938307	21.0475652	7.6231519	.002257336
444	197136	87528384	21.0713075	7.6288837	.002252252
445	198025	88121125	21.0950231	7.6346067	.002247191
446	198916	88716536	21.1187121	7.6403213	.002242152
447	199809	89314623	21.1423745	7.6460272	.002237136
448	200704	89915392	21.1660105	7.6517247	.002232143
449	201601	90518849	21.1896201	7.6574138	.002227171
450	202500	91125000	21.2132034	7.6630943	.002222222
451	203401	91733851	21.2367606	7.6687665	.002217295
452	204304	92345408	21.2602916	7.6744303	.002212389
453	205209	92959677	21.2837967	7.6800857	.002207506
454	206116	93576664	21.3072758	7.6857328	.002202643
455	207025	94196375	21.3307290	7.6913717	.002197802
456	207936	94818816	21.3541565	7.6970023	.002192982
457	208849	95443993	21.3775583	7.7026246	.002188184
458	209764	96071912	21.4009346	7.7082388	.002183406
459	210681	96702579	21.4242853	7.7138448	.002178649
460	211600	97336000	21.4476106	7.7194426	.002173913
461	212521	97972181	21.4709106	7.7250325	.002169197
462	213444	98611128	21.4941853	7.7306141	.002164502
463	214369	99252847	21.5174348	7.7361877	.002159827
464	215296	99897344	21.5406592	7.7417532	.002155172
465	216225	100544625	21.5638587	7.7473109	.002150538
466	217156	101194696	21.5870331	7.7528606	.002145923
467	218089	101847563	21.6101828	7.7584023	.002141328
468	219024	102503232	21.6333077	7.7639361	.002136752
469	219961	103161709	21.6564078	7.7694620	.002132196
470	220900	103823000	21.6794834	7.7749801	.002127660
471	221841	104487111	21.7025344	7.7804904	.002123142
472	222784	105154048	21.7255610	7.7859928	.002118644
473	223729	105823817	21.7485632	7.7914875	.002114165
474	224676	106496424	21.7715411	7.7969745	.002109705
475	225625	107171875	21.7944947	7.8024538	.002105263
476	226576	107850176	21.8174242	7.8079254	.002100840
477	227529	108531333	21.8403297	7.8133892	.002096436
478	228484	109215352	21 8632111	7.8188456	.002092050
479	229441	109902239	21.8860686	7.8242942	.002087683
480	230400	110592000	21.9089023	7.8297353	.002083333
481	231361	111284641	21.9317122	7.8351688	.002079002
482	232324	111980168	21.9544984	7.8405949	.002074689
483	233289	112678587	21.9772610	7.8460134	.002070393
484	234256	113379904	22.0000000	7.8514244	.002066116
485	235225	114084125	22.0227155	7.8568281	.002061856
486	236196	114791256	22.0454077	7.8622242	.002057613
487	237169	115501303	22.0680765	7.8676130	.002053388
488	238144	116214272	22.0907220	7.8729944	.002049180
489	239121	116930169	22.1133444	7 8783684	.002044990
490	240100	117649000	22.1359436	7.8837352	.002040816
491	241081	118370771	22.1585198	7.8890946	.002036660
492	242064	119095488	22.1810730	7.8944468	.002032520
493	243049	119823157	22.2036033	7.8997917	.002028398
494	244036	120553784	22.2261108	7.9051294	.002024291
495	245025	121287375	22.2485955	7.9104599	.002020202
496	246016	122023936	22.2710575	7.9157832	.002016129

TABLE XVI.—SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE ROOTS,

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
497	247009	122763473	22.2934968	7.9210904	.002012072
498	248004	123505992	22.3159136	7.9264085	.002008032
499	249001	124251499	22.3383079	7.9317104	.002004008
500	250000	125000000	22.3606798	7.9370053	.002000000
501	251001	125751501	22.3830293	7.9422931	.001996008
502	252004	126506008	22.4053565	7.9475739	.001992032
503	253009	127263527	22.4276615	7.9528477	.001988072
504	254016	128024064	22.4499443	7.9581144	.001984127
505	255025	128787625	22.4722051	7.9633743	.001980198
506	256036	129554216	22.4944438	7.9686271	.001976285
507	257049	130323843	22.5166605	7.9738731	.001972387
508	258064	131096512	22.5388553	7.9791122	.001968504
509	259081	131872229	22.5610283	7.9843444	.001964637
510	260100	132651000	22.5831796	7.9895697	.001960784
511	261121	133432831	22.6053091	7.9947883	.001956947
512	262144	134217728	22.6274170	8.0000000	.001953125
513	263169	135005697	22.6495033	8.0052049	.001949318
514	264196	135796744	22.6715681	8.0104032	.001945525
515	265225	136590875	22.6936114	8.0155946	.001941748
516	266256	137388096	22.7156334	8.0207794	.001937984
517	267289	138188413	22.7376340	8.0259574	.001934236
518	268324	138991832	22.7596134	8.0311287	.001930502
519	269361	139798359	22.7815715	8.0362935	.001926782
520	270400	140608000	22.8035085	8.0414515	.001923077
521	271441	141420761	22.8254244	8.0466030	.001919386
522	272484	142236648	22.8473193	8.0517479	.001915709
523	273529	143055667	22.8691933	8.0568862	.001912046
524	274576	143877824	22.8910463	8.0620180	.001908397
525	275625	144703125	22.9128785	8.0671432	.001904762
526	276676	145531576	22.9346899	8.0722620	.001901141
527	277729	146363183	22.9564806	8.0773743	.001897533
528	278784	147197952	22.9782506	8.0824800	.001893939
529	279841	148035889	23.0000000	8.0875794	.001890359
530	280900	148877000	23.0217289	8.0926723	.001886792
531	281961	149721291	23.0434372	8.0977589	.001883239
532	283024	150568768	23.0651252	8.1028390	.001879699
533	284089	151419437	23.0867928	8.1079128	.001876173
534	285156	152273304	23.1084400	8.1129803	.001872659
535	286225	153130375	23.1300670	8.1180414	.001869159
536	287296	153990656	23.1516738	8.1230962	.001865672
537	288369	154854153	23.1732605	8.1281447	.001862197
538	289444	155720872	23.1948270	8.1331870	.001858736
539	290521	156590819	23.2163735	8.1382230	.001855288
540	291600	157464000	23.2379001	8.1432529	.001851852
541	292681	158340421	23.2594067	8.1482765	.001848429
542	293764	159220088	23.2808935	8.1532939	.001845018
543	294849	16 103007	23.3023604	8.1583051	.001841621
544	295936	160989184	23.3238076	8.1633102	.001838235
545	297025	161878625	23.3452351	8.1683092	.001834862
546	298116	162771336	23.3666429	8.1733020	.001831502
547	299209	163667323	23.3880311	8.1782888	.001828154
548	300304	164566592	23.4093998	8.1832695	.001824818
549	301401	165469149	23.4307490	8.1882441	.001821494
550	302500	166375000	23.4520788	8.1932127	.001818182
551	303601	167284151	23.4733892	8.1981752	.001814882
552	304704	168196608	23.4946802	8.2031319	.001811594
553	305809	169112377	23.5159520	8.2080825	.001808318
554	306916	170031464	23.5372046	8.2130271	.001805054
555	308025	170953875	23.5584380	8.2179657	.001801802
556	309136	171879616	23.5796522	8.2228985	.001798561
557	310249	172808693	23.6008474	8.2278254	.001795332
558	311364	173741112	23.6220236	8.2327463	.001792115

No	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
559	312481	174676879	23.6431808	8.2376614	.001788909
560	313600	175616000	23.6643191	8.2425706	.001785714
561	314721	176558481	23.6854386	8.2474740	.001782531
562	315844	177504328	23.7065392	8.2523715	.001779359
563	316969	178453547	23.7276210	8.2572633	.001776199
564	318096	179406144	23.7486842	8.2621492	.001773050
565	319225	180362125	23.7697286	8.2670294	.001769912
566	320356	181321496	23.7907545	8.2719039	.001766784
567	321489	182284263	23.8117618	8.2767726	.001763668
568	322624	183250432	23.8327506	8.2816355	.001760563
569	323761	184220000	23.8537209	8.2864928	.001757469
570	324900	185193000	23.8746728	8.2913444	.001754386
571	326041	186169411	23.8956063	8.2961903	.001751313
572	327184	187149248	23.9165215	8.3010304	.001748252
573	328329	188132517	23.9374184	8.3058651	.001745201
574	329476	189119224	23.9582971	8.3106941	.001742160
575	330625	190109375	23.9791576	8.3155175	.001739130
576	331776	191102976	24.0000000	8.3203353	.001736111
577	332929	192100033	24.0208243	8.3251475	.001733102
578	334084	193100552	24.0416306	8.3299542	.001730104
579	335241	194104539	24.0624188	8.3347553	.001727116
580	336400	195112000	24.0831891	8.3395509	.001724138
581	337561	196122941	24.1039416	8.3443410	.001721170
582	338724	197137368	24.1246762	8.3491256	.001718213
583	339889	198155287	24.1453929	8.3539047	.001715266
584	341056	199176704	24.1660919	8.3586784	.001712329
585	342225	200201625	24.1867732	8.3634466	.001709402
586	343396	201230056	24.2074369	8.3682095	.001706485
587	344569	202262003	24.2280829	8.3729668	.001703578
588	345744	203297472	24.2487113	8.3777188	.001700680
589	346921	204336469	24.2693222	8.3824653	.001697793
590	348100	205379000	24.2899156	8.3872065	.001694915
591	349281	206425071	24.3104916	8.3919423	.001692047
592	350464	207474688	24.3310501	8.3966729	.001689189
593	351649	208527857	24.3515913	8.4013981	.001686341
594	352836	209584584	24.3721152	8.4061180	.001683502
595	354025	210644875	24.3926218	8.4108326	001680672
596	355216	211708736	24.4131112	8.4155419	.001677852
597	356409	212776173	24.4335834	8.4202460	.001675042
598	357604	213847192	24.4540385	8.4249448	.001672241
599	358801	214921799	24.4744765	8.4296383	.001669449
600	360000	216000000	24.4948974	8.4343267	.001666667
601	361201	217081801	24.5153013	8.4390098	.001663894
602	362404	218167208	24.5356883	8.4436877	.001661130
603	363609	219256227	24.5560583	8.4483605	.001658375
604	364816	220348864	24.5764115	8.4530281	.001655629
605	366025	221445125	24.5967478	8.4576906	.001652893
606	367236	222545016	24.6170673	8.4623479	.001650165
607	368449	223648543	24.6373700	8.4670001	.001647446
608	369664	224755712	24.6576560	8.4716471	.001644737
609	370881	225866529	24.6779254	8.4762892	.001642036
610	372100	226981000	24.6981781	8.4809261	.001639344
611	373321	228099131	24.7184142	8.4855579	.001636661
612	374544	229220928	24.7386338	8.4901848	001633987
613	375769	230346397	24.7588368	8.4948065	001631321
614	376996	231475544	24.7790234	8.4994233	.001628664
615	378225	232608375	24.7991935	8.5040350	.001626016
616	379456	233744896	24.8193473	8.5086417	.001623377
617	380689	234885113	24.8394847	8.5132435	.001620746
618	381924	236029032	24.8596058	8.5178403	.001618123
619	383161	237176659	24.8797106	8.5224321	.001615509
620	384400	238328000	24.8997992	8.5270189	.001612903

TABLE XVI.—SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE ROOTS,

Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
385641	239483061	24.9198716	8.5316009	.001610306
386884	240641848	24.9399278	8.5361780	.001607717
388129	241804367	24.9599679	8.5407501	.001605136
389376	242970624	24.9799920	8.5453173	.001602564
390625	244140625	25.0000000	8.5498797	.001600000
391876	245314376	25.0199920	8.5544372	.001597444
393129	246491883	25.0399681	8.5589899	.001594896
394384	247673152	25.0599282	8.5635377	.001592357
395641	248858189	25.0798724	8.5680807	.001589825
396900	250047000	25.0998008	8.5726189	.001587302
398161	251239591	25.1197134	8.5771523	.001584786
399424	252435968	25.1396102	8.5816809	.001582278
400689	253636137	25.1594913	8.5862047	.001579779
401956	254840104	25.1793566	8.5907238	.001577287
403225	256047875	25.1992063	8.5952380	.001574803
404496	257259456	25.2190404	8.5997476	.001572327
405769	258474853	25.2388589	8.6042525	.001569859
407044	259694072	25.2586619	8.6087526	.001567398
408321	260917119	25.2784493	8.6132480	.001564945
409600	262144000	25.2982213	8.6177388	.001562500
410881	263374721	25.3179778	8.6222248	.001560062
412164	264609288	25.3377189	8.6267063	.001557632
413449	265847707	25.3574447	8.6311830	.001555210
414736	267089984	25.3771551	8.6356551	.001552795
416025	268336125	25.3968502	8.6401226	.001550388
417316	269586136	25.4165301	8.6445855	.001547988
418609	270840023	25.4361947	8.6490437	.001545595
419904	272097792	25.4558441	8.6534974	.001543210
421201	273359449	25.4754784	8.6579465	.001540832
422500	274625000	25.4950976	8.6623911	.001538462
423801	275894451	25.5147016	8.6668310	.001536098
425104	277167808	25.5342907	8.6712665	.001533742
426409	278445077	25.5538647	8.6756974	.001531394
427716	279726264	25.5734237	8.6801237	.001529052
429025	281011375	25.5929678	8.6845456	.001526718
430336	282300416	25.6124969	8.6889630	.001524390
431649	283593393	25.6320112	8.6933759	.001522070
432964	284890312	25.6515107	8.6977843	.001519757
434281	286191179	25.6709953	8.7021882	.001517451
435600	287496000	25.6904652	8.7065877	.001515152
436921	288804781	25.7099203	8.7109827	.001512859
438244	290117528	25.7293607	8.7153734	.001510574
439569	291434247	25.7487864	8.7197596	.001508296
440896	292754944	25.7681975	8.7241414	.001506024
442225	294079625	25.7875939	8.7285187	.001503759
443556	295408296	25.8069758	8.7328918	.001501502
444889	296740963	25.8263431	8.7372604	.001499250
446224	298077632	25.8456960	8.7416246	.001497006
447561	299418309	25.8650343	8.7459846	.001494768
448900	300763000	25.8843582	8.7503401	.001492537
450241	302111711	25.9036677	8.7546913	.001490313
451584	303464448	25.9229628	8.7590383	.001488095
452929	304821217	25.9422435	8.7633809	.001485884
454276	306182024	25.9615100	8.7677192	.001483680
455625	307546875	25.9807621	8.7720532	.001481481
456976	308915776	26.0000000	8.7763830	.001479290
458329	310288733	26.0192237	8.7807084	.001477105
459684	311665752	26.0384331	8.7850296	.001474926
461041	313046839	26.0576284	8.7893466	.001472754
462400	314432000	26.0768096	8.7936593	.001470588
463761	315821241	26.0959767	8.7979679	.001468429
465124	*317214568*	26.1151297	8.8022721	.001466276

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
683	466489	318611987	26.1342687	8.8065722	.001464129
684	467856	320013504	26.1533937	8.8108681	.001461988
685	469225	321419125	26.1725047	8.8151598	.001459854
686	470596	322828856	26.1916017	8.8194474	.001457726
687	471969	324242703	26.2106848	8.8237307	.001455604
688	473344	325660672	26.2297541	8.8280099	.001453488
689	474721	327082769	26.2488095	8.8322850	.001451379
690	476100	328509000	26.2678511	8.8365559	.001449275
691	477481	329939371	26.2868789	8.8408227	.001447178
692	478864	331373888	26.3058929	8.8450854	.001445087
693	480249	332812557	26.3248932	8.8493440	.001443001
694	481636	334255384	26.3438797	8.8535985	.001440922
695	483025	335702375	26.3628527	8.8578489	.001438849
696	484416	337153536	26.3818119	8.8620952	.001436782
697	485809	338608873	26.4007576	8.8663375	.001434720
698	487204	340068392	26.4196896	8.8705757	.001432665
699	488601	341532099	26.4386081	8.8748099	.001430615
700	490000	343000000	26.4575131	8.8790400	.001428571
701	491401	344472101	26.4764046	8.8832661	.001426534
702	492804	345948408	26.4952826	8.8874882	.001424501
703	494209	347428927	26.5141472	8.8917063	.001422475
704	495616	348913664	26.5329983	8.8959204	.001420455
705	497025	350402625	26.5518361	8.9001304	.001418440
706	498436	351895816	26.5706605	8.9043366	.001416431
707	499849	353393243	26.5894716	8.9085387	.001414427
708	501264	354894912	26.6082694	8.9127369	.001412429
709	502681	356400829	26 6270539	8.9169311	.001410437
710	504100	357911000	26.6458252	8.9211214	.001408451
711	505521	359425431	26.6645833	8.9253078	.001406470
712	506944	360944128	26.6833281	8.9294902	.001404494
713	508369	362467097	26.7020598	8.9336687	001402525
714	509796	363994344	26.7207784	8.9378433	.001400560
715	511225	365525875	26.7394839	8.9420140	.001398601
716	512656	367061696	26.7581763	8.9461809	.001396648
717	514089	368601813	26.7768557	8.9503438	.001394700
718	515524	370146232	26.7955220	8.9545029	.001392758
719	516961	371694959	26.8141754	8.9586581	.001390821
720	518400	373248000	26.8328157	8.9628095	.001388889
721	519841	374805361	26.8514432	8.9669570	.001386963
722	521284	376367048	26.8700577	8.9711007	.001385042
723	522729	377933067	26.8886593	8.9752406	.001383126
724	524176	379503424	26.9072481	8.9793766	.001381215
725	525625	381078125	26.9258240	8.9835089	.001379310
726	527076	382657176	26.9443872	8.9876373	.001377410
727	528529	384240583	26.9629375	8.9917620	.001375516
728	529984	385828352	26.9814751	8.9958829	.001373626
729	531441	387420489	27.0000000	9.0000000	.001371742
730	532900	389017000	27.0185122	9.0041134	.001369863
731	534361	390617891	27.0370117	9.0082229	.001367989
732	535824	392223168	27.0554985	9.0123288	.001366120
733	537289	393832837	27.0739727	9.0164309	.001364256
734	538756	395446904	27.0924344	9.0205293	.001362398
735	540225	397065375	27.1108834	9.0246239	.001360544
736	541696	398688256	27.1293199	9.0287149	.001358696
737	543169	400315553	27.1477439	9.0328021	.001356852
738	544644	401947272	27.1661554	9.0368857	.001355014
739	546121	403583419	27.1845544	9.0409655	.001353180
740	547600	405224000	27.2029410	9.0450419	.001351351
741	549081	406869021	27.2213152	9.0491142	.001349528
742	550564	408518488	27.2396769	9.0531831	.001347709
743	552049	410172407	27.2580263	9.0572482	.001345895
744	553536	411830784	27.2763634	9.0613098	.001344086

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
745	555025	413493625	27.2946881	9.0653677	.001342282
746	556516	415160936	27.3130006	9.0694220	.001340483
747	558009	416832723	27.3313007	9.0734726	.001338688
748	559504	418508992	27.3495887	9.0775197	.001336898
749	561001	420189749	27.3678644	9.0815631	.001335113
750	562500	421875000	27.3861279	9.0856030	.001333333
751	564001	423564751	27.4043792	9.0896392	.001331558
752	565504	425259008	27.4226184	9.0936719	.001329787
753	567009	426957777	27.4408455	9.0977010	.001328021
754	568516	428661064	27.4590604	9.1017265	.001326260
755	570025	430368875	27.4772632	9.1057485	.001324503
756	571536	432081216	27.4954542	9.1097669	.001322751
757	573049	433798093	27.5136330	9.1137818	.001321004
758	574564	435519512	27.5317998	9.1177931	.001319261
759	576081	437245479	27.5499546	9.1218010	.001317523
760	577600	438976000	27.5680975	9.1258053	.001315789
761	579121	440711081	27.5862284	9.1298061	.001314060
762	580644	442450728	27.6043475	9.1338034	.001312336
763	582169	444194947	27.6224546	9.1377971	.001310616
764	583696	445943744	27.6405499	9.1417874	.001308901
765	585225	447697125	27.6586334	9.1457742	.001307190
766	586756	449455096	27.6767050	9.1497576	.001305483
767	588289	451217663	27.6947648	9.1537375	.001303781
768	589824	452984832	27.7128129	9.1577139	.001302083
769	591361	454756609	27.7308492	9.1616869	.001300390
770	592900	456533000	27.7488739	9.1656565	.001298701
771	594441	458314011	27.7668868	9.1696225	.001297017
772	595984	460099648	27.7848880	9.1735852	.001295337
773	597529	461889917	27.8028775	9.1775445	.001293661
774	599076	463684824	27.8208555	9.1815003	.001291990
775	600625	465484375	27.8388218	9.1854527	.001290323
776	602176	467288576	27.8567766	9.1894018	.001288660
777	603729	469097433	27.8747197	9.1933474	.001287001
778	605284	470910952	27.8926514	9.1972897	.001285347
779	606841	472729139	27.9105715	9.2012286	.001283697
780	608400	474552000	27.9284801	9.2051641	.001282051
781	609961	476379541	27.9463772	9.2090962	.001280410
782	611524	478211768	27.9642629	9.2130250	.001278772
783	613089	480048687	27.9821372	9.2169505	.001277139
784	614656	481890304	28.0000000	9.2208726	.001275510
785	616225	483736625	28.0178515	9.2247914	.001273885
786	617796	485587656	28.0356915	9.2287068	.001272265
787	619369	487443403	28.0535203	9.2326189	.001270648
788	620944	489303872	28.0713377	9.2365277	.001269036
789	622521	491169069	28.0891438	9.2404333	.001267427
790	624100	493039000	28.1069386	9.2443355	.001265823
791	625681	494913671	28.1247222	9.2482344	.001264223
792	627264	496793088	28.1424946	9.2521300	.001262626
793	628849	498677257	28.1602557	9.2560224	.001261034
794	630436	500566184	28.1780056	9.2599114	.001259446
795	632025	502459875	28.1957444	9.2637973	.001257862
796	633616	504358336	28.2134720	9.2676798	.001256281
797	635209	506261573	28.2311884	9.2715592	.001254705
798	636804	508169592	28.2488938	9.2754352	.001253133
799	638401	510082399	28.2665881	9.2793081	.001251564
800	640000	512000000	28.2842712	9.2831777	.001250000
801	641601	513922401	28.3019434	9.2870440	.001248439
802	643204	515849608	28.3196045	9.2909072	.001246883
803	644809	517781627	28.3372546	9.2947671	.001245330
804	646416	519718464	28.3548938	9.2986239	.001243781
805	648025	521660125	28.3725219	9.3024775	.001242236
806	649636	523606616	28.3901391	9.3063278	.001240695

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
807	651249	525557943	28.4077454	9.3101750	.001239157
808	652864	527514112	28.4253408	9.3140190	.001237624
809	654481	529475129	28.4429253	9.3178599	.001236094
810	656100	531441000	28.4604989	9.3216975	.001234568
811	657721	533411731	28.4780617	9.3255320	.001233046
812	659344	535387328	28.4956137	9.3293634	.001231527
813	660969	537367797	28.5131549	9.3331916	.001230012
814	662596	539353144	28.5306852	9.3370167	.001228501
815	664225	541343375	28.5482048	9.3408386	.001226994
816	665856	543338496	28.5657137	9.3446575	.001225490
817	667489	545338513	28.5832119	9.3484731	.001223990
818	669124	547343432	28.6006993	9.3522857	.001222494
819	670761	549353259	28.6181760	9.3560952	.001221001
820	672400	551368000	28.6356421	9.3599016	.001219512
821	674041	553387661	28.6530976	9.3637049	.001218027
822	675684	555412248	28.6705424	9.3675051	.001216545
823	677329	557441767	28.6879766	9.3713022	.001215067
824	678976	559476224	28.7054002	9.3750963	.001213592
825	680625	561515625	28.7228132	9.3788873	.001212121
826	682276	563559976	28.7402157	9.3826752	.001210654
827	683929	565609283	28.7576077	9.3864600	.001209190
828	685584	567663552	28.7749891	9.3902419	.001207729
829	687241	569722789	28.7923601	9.3940206	.001206273
830	688900	571787000	28.8097206	9.3977964	.001204819
831	690561	573856191	28.8270706	9.4015691	.001203369
832	692224	575930368	28.8444102	9.4053387	.001201923
833	693889	578009537	28.8617394	9.4091054	.001200480
834	695556	580093704	28.8790582	9.4128690	.001199041
835	697225	582182875	28.8963666	9.4166297	.001197605
836	698896	584277056	28.9136646	9.4203873	.001196172
837	700569	586376253	28.9309523	9.4241420	.001194743
838	702244	588480472	28.9482297	9.4278936	.001193317
839	703921	590589719	28.9654967	9.4316423	.001191895
840	705600	592704000	28.9827535	9.4353880	.001190476
841	707281	594823321	29.0000000	9.4391307	.001189061
842	708964	596947688	29.0172363	9.4428704	.001187648
843	710649	599077107	29.0344623	9.4466072	.001186240
844	712336	601211584	29.0516781	9.4503410	.001184834
845	714025	603351125	29.0688837	9.4540719	.001183432
846	715716	605495736	29.0860791	9.4577999	.001182033
847	717409	607645423	29.1032644	9.4615249	.001180638
848	719104	609800192	29.1204396	9.4652470	.001179245
849	720801	611960049	29.1376046	9.4689661	.001177856
850	722500	614125000	29.1547595	9.4726824	.001176471
851	724201	616295051	29.1719043	9.4763957	.001175088
852	725904	618470208	29.1890390	9.4801061	.001173709
853	727609	620650477	29.2061637	9.4838136	.001172333
854	729316	622835864	29.2232784	9.4875182	.001170960
855	731025	625026375	29.2403830	9.4912200	.001169591
856	732736	627222016	29.2574777	9.4949188	.001168224
857	734449	629422793	29.2745623	9.4986147	.001166861
858	736164	631628712	29.2916370	9.5023078	.001165501
859	737881	633839779	29.3087018	9.5059980	.001164144
860	739600	636056000	29.3257566	9.5096854	.001162791
861	741321	638277381	29.3428015	9.5133699	.001161440
862	743044	640503928	29.3598365	9.5170515	.001160093
863	744769	642735647	29.3768616	9.5207303	.001158749
864	746496	644972544	29.3938769	9.5244063	.001157407
865	748225	647214625	29.4108823	9.5280794	.001156069
866	749956	649461896	29.4278779	9.5317497	.001154734
867	751689	651714363	29.4448637	9.5354172	.001153403
868	753424	653972032	29.4618397	9.5390818	.001152074

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
869	755161	656234909	29.4788059	9.5427437	.001150748
870	756900	658503000	29.4957624	9.5464027	.001149425
871	758641	660776311	29.5127091	9.5500589	.001148106
872	760384	663054848	29.5296461	9.5537123	.001146789
873	762129	665338617	29.5465734	9.5573630	.001145475
874	763876	667627624	29.5634910	9.5610108	.001144165
875	765625	669921875	29.5803989	9.5646559	.001142857
876	767376	672221376	29.5972972	9.5682982	.001141553
877	769129	674526133	29.6141858	9.5719377	.001140251
878	770884	676836152	29.6310648	9.5755745	.001138952
879	772641	679151439	29.6479342	9.5792085	.001137656
880	774400	681472000	29.6647939	9.5828397	.001136364
881	776161	683797841	29.6816442	9.5864682	.001135074
882	777924	686128968	29.6984848	9.5900939	.001133787
883	779689	688465387	29.7153159	9.5937169	.001132503
884	781456	690807104	29.7321375	9.5973373	.001131222
885	783225	693154125	29.7489496	9.6009548	.001129944
886	784996	695506456	29.7657521	9.6045696	.001128668
887	786769	697864103	29.7825452	9.6081817	.001127396
888	788544	700227072	29.7993289	9.6117911	.001126126
889	790321	702595369	29.8161030	9.6153977	.001124859
890	792100	704969000	29.8328678	9.6190017	.001123596
891	793881	707347971	29.8496231	9.6226030	.001122334
892	795664	709732288	29.8663690	9.6262016	.001121076
893	797449	712121957	29.8831056	9.6297975	.001119821
894	799236	714516984	29.8998328	9.6333907	.001118568
895	801025	716917375	29.9165506	9.6369812	.001117318
896	802816	719323136	29.9332591	9.6405690	.001116071
897	804609	721734273	29.9499583	9.6441542	.001114827
898	806404	724150792	29.9666481	9.6477367	.001113586
899	808201	726572699	29.9833287	9.6513166	.001112347
900	810000	729000000	30.0000000	9.6548938	.001111111
901	811801	731432701	30.0166620	9.6584684	.001109878
902	813604	733870808	30.0333148	9.6620403	.001108647
903	815409	736314327	30.0499584	9.6656096	.001107420
904	817216	738763264	30.0665928	9.6691762	.001106195
905	819025	741217625	30.0832179	9.6727403	.001104972
906	820836	743677416	30.0998339	9.6763017	.001103753
907	822649	746142643	30.1164407	9.6798604	.001102536
908	824464	748613312	30.1330383	9.6834166	.001101322
909	826281	751089429	30.1496269	9.6869701	.001100110
910	828100	753571000	30.1662063	9.6905211	.001098901
911	829921	756058031	30.1827765	9.6940694	.001097695
912	831744	758550528	30.1993377	9.6976151	.001096491
913	833569	761048497	30.2158899	9.7011583	.001095290
914	835396	763551944	30.2324329	9.7046989	.001094092
915	837225	766060875	30.2489669	9.7082369	.001092896
916	839056	768575296	30.2654919	9.7117723	.001091703
917	840889	771095213	30.2820079	9.7153051	.001090513
918	842724	773620632	30.2985148	9.7188354	.001089325
919	844561	776151559	30.3150128	9.7223631	.001088139
920	846400	778688000	30.3315018	9.7258883	.001086957
921	848241	781229961	30.3479818	9.7294109	.001085776
922	850084	783777448	30.3644529	9.7329309	.001084599
923	851929	786330467	30.3809151	9.7364484	.001083423
924	853776	788889024	30.3973683	9.7399634	.001082251
925	855625	791453125	30.4138127	9.7434758	.001081081
926	857476	794022776	30.4302481	9.7469857	.001079914
927	859329	796597983	30.4466747	9.7504930	.001078749
928	861184	799178752	30.4630924	9.7539979	.001077586
929	863041	801765089	30.4795013	9.7575002	.001076426
930	864900	804357000	30.4959014	9.7610001	.001075269

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
931	866761	806954491	30.5122926	9.7644974	.001074114
932	868624	809557568	30.5286750	9.7679922	.001072961
933	870489	812166237	30.5450487	9.7714845	.001071811
934	872356	814780504	30.5614136	9.7749743	.001070664
935	874225	817400375	30.5777697	9.7784616	.001069519
936	876096	820025856	30.5941171	9.7819466	.001068376
937	877969	822656953	30.6104557	9.7854288	.001067236
938	879844	825293672	30.6267857	9.7889087	.001066098
939	881721	827936019	30.6431069	9.7923861	.001064963
940	883600	830584000	30.6594194	9.7958611	.001063830
941	885481	833237621	30.6757233	9.7993336	.001062699
942	887364	835896888	30.6920185	9.8028036	.001061571
943	889249	838561807	30.7083051	9.8062711	.001060445
944	891136	841232384	30.7245830	9.8097362	.001059322
945	893025	843908625	30.7408523	9.8131989	.001058201
946	894916	846590536	30.7571130	9.8166591	.001057082
947	896809	849278123	30.7733651	9.8201169	.001055966
948	898704	851971392	30.7896086	9.8235723	.001054852
949	900601	854670349	30.8058436	9.8270252	.001053741
950	902500	857375000	30.8220700	9.8304757	.001052632
951	904401	860085351	30.8382879	9.8339238	.001051525
952	906304	862801408	30.8544972	9.8373695	.001050420
953	908209	865523177	30.8706981	9.8408127	.001049318
954	910116	868250664	30.8868904	9.8442536	.001048218
955	912025	870983875	30.9030743	9.8476920	.001047120
956	913936	873722816	30.9192497	9.8511280	.001046025
957	915849	876467493	30.9354166	9.8545617	.001044932
958	917764	879217912	30.9515751	9.8579929	.001043841
959	919681	881974079	30.9677251	9.8614218	.001042753
960	921600	884736000	30.9838668	9.8648483	.001041667
961	923521	887503681	31.0000000	9.8682724	.001040583
962	925444	890277128	31.0161248	9.8716941	.001039501
963	927369	893056347	31.0322413	9.8751135	.001038422
964	929296	895841344	31.0483494	9.8785305	.001037344
965	931225	898632125	31.0644491	9.8819451	.001036269
966	933156	901428696	31.0805405	9.8853574	.001035197
967	935089	904231063	31.0966236	9.8887673	.001034126
968	937024	907039232	31.1126984	9.8921749	.001033058
969	938961	909853209	31.1287648	9.8955801	.001031992
970	940900	912673000	31.1448230	9.8989830	.001030928
971	942841	915498611	31.1608729	9.9023835	.001029866
972	944784	918330048	31.1769145	9.9057817	.001028807
973	946729	921167317	31.1929479	9.9091776	.001027749
974	948676	924010424	31.2089731	9.9125712	.001026694
975	950625	926859375	31.2249900	9.9159624	.001025641
976	952576	929714176	31.2409987	9.9193513	.001024590
977	954529	932574833	31.2569992	9.9227379	.001023541
978	956484	935441352	31.2729915	9.9261222	.001022495
979	958441	938313739	31.2889757	9.9295042	.001021450
980	960400	941192000	31.3049517	9.9328839	.001020408
981	962361	944076141	31.3209195	9.9362613	.001019368
982	964324	946966168	31.3368792	9.9396363	.001018330
983	966289	949862087	31.3528308	9.9430092	.001017294
984	968256	952763904	31.3687743	9.9463797	.001016260
985	970225	955671625	31.3847097	9.9497479	.001015228
986	972196	958585256	31.4006369	9.9531138	.001014199
987	974169	961504803	31.4165561	9.9564775	.001013171
988	976144	964430272	31.4324673	9.9598389	.001012146
989	978121	967361669	31.4483704	9.9631981	.001011122
990	980100	970299000	31.4642654	9.9665549	.001010101
991	982081	973242271	31.4801525	9.9699095	.001009082
992	984064	976191488	31.4960315	9.9732619	.001008065

No.	Squares.	Cubes.	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Reciprocals.
993	986049	979146657	31.5119025	9.9766120	.001007049
994	988036	982107784	31.5277655	9.9799599	.001006036
995	990025	985074875	31.5436206	9.9833055	.001005025
996	992016	988047936	31.5594677	9.9866488	.001004016
997	994009	991026973	31.5753068	9.9899900	.001003009
998	996004	994011992	31.5911380	9.9933289	.001002004
999	998001	997002999	31.6069613	9.9966656	.001001001
1000	1000000	1000000000	31.6227766	10.0000000	.001000000
1001	1002001	1003003001	31.6385840	10.0033322	.0009990010
1002	1004004	1006012008	31.6543836	10.0066622	.0009980040
1003	1006009	1009027027	31.6701752	10.0099899	.0009970090
1004	1008016	1012048064	31.6859590	10.0133155	.0009960159
1005	1010025	1015075125	31.7017349	10.0166389	.0009950249
1006	1012036	1018108216	31.7175030	10.0199601	.0009940358
1007	1014049	1021147343	31.7332633	10.0232791	.0009930487
1008	1016064	1024192512	31.7490157	10.0265958	.0009920635
1009	1018081	1027243729	31.7647603	10.0299104	.0009910803
1010	1020100	1030301000	31.7804972	10.0332228	.0009900990
1011	1022121	1033364331	31.7962262	10.0365330	.0009891197
1012	1024144	1036433728	31.8119474	10.0398410	.0009881423
1013	1026169	1039509197	31.8276609	10.0431469	.0009871668
1014	1028196	1042590744	31.8433666	10.0464506	.0009861933
1015	1030225	1045678375	31.8590646	10.0497521	.0009852217
1016	1032256	1048772096	31.8747549	10.0530514	.0009842520
1017	1034289	1051871913	31.8904374	10.0563485	.0009832842
1018	1036324	1054977832	31.9061123	10.0596435	.0009823183
1019	1038361	1058089859	31.9217794	10.0629364	.0009813543
1020	1040400	1061208000	31.9374388	10.0662271	.0009803922
1021	1042441	1064332261	31.9530906	10.0695156	.0009794319
1022	1044484	1067462648	31.9687347	10.0728020	.0009784736
1023	1046529	1070599167	31.9843712	10.0760863	.0009775171
1024	1048576	1073741824	32.0000000	10.0793684	.0009765625
1025	1050625	1076890625	32.0156212	10.0826484	.0009756098
1026	1052676	1080045576	32.0312348	10.0859262	.0009746589
1027	1054729	1083206683	32.0468407	10.0892019	.0009737098
1028	1056784	1086373952	32.0624391	10.0924755	.0009727626
1029	1058841	1089547389	32.0780298	10.0957469	.0009718173
1030	1060900	1092727000	32.0936131	10.0990163	.0009708738
1031	1062961	1095912791	32.1091887	10.1022835	.0009699321
1032	1065024	1099104768	32.1247568	10.1055487	.0009689922
1033	1067089	1102302937	32.1403173	10.1088117	.0009680542
1034	1069156	1105507304	32.1558704	10.1120726	.0009671180
1035	1071225	1108717875	32.1714159	10.1153314	.0009661836
1036	1073296	1111934656	32.1869539	10.1185882	.0009652510
1037	1075369	1115157653	32.2024844	10.1218428	.0009643202
1038	1077444	1118386872	32.2180074	10.1250953	.0009633911
1039	1079521	1121622319	32.2335229	10.1283457	.0009624639
1040	1081600	1124864000	32.2490310	10.1315941	.0009615385
1041	1083681	1128111921	32.2645316	10.1348403	.0009606148
1042	1085764	1131366088	32.2800248	10.1380845	.0009596929
1043	1087849	1134626507	32.2955105	10.1413266	.0009587738
1044	1089936	1137893184	32.3109888	10.1445667	.0009578544
1045	1092025	1141166125	32.3264598	10.1478047	.0009569378
1046	1094116	1144445336	32.3419233	10.1510406	.0009560229
1047	1096209	1147730823	32.3573794	10.1542744	.0009551098
1048	1098304	1151022592	32.3728281	10.1575062	.0009541985
1049	1100401	1154320649	32.3882695	10.1607359	.0009532888
1050	1102500	1157625000	32.4037035	10.1639636	.0009523810
1051	1104601	1160935651	32.4191301	10.1671893	.0009514748
1052	1106704	1164252608	32.4345495	10.1704129	.0009505703
1053	1108809	1167575877	32.4499615	10.1736344	.0009496676
1054	1110916	1170905464	32.4653662	10.1768539	.0009487666

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2	0860	0903	0945	0988	1030	1072	1115	1157	1199
3	1284	1326	1368	1410	1452	1494	1536	1578	1620
4	1703	1745	1787	1828	1870	1912	1953	1995	2036
5	2119	2160	2202	2243	2284	2325	2366	2407	2449
6	2531	2572	2612	2653	2694	2735	2776	2816	2857
7	2938	2979	3019	3060	3100	3141	3181	3222	3262
8	3342	3383	3423	3463	3503	3543	3583	3623	3663
9	3743	3782	3822	3862	3902	3941	3981	4021	4060
110	04139	04179	04218	04258	04297	04336	04376	04415	04454
1	4532	4571	4610	4650	4689	4727	4766	4805	4844
2	4922	4961	4999	.5038	5077	5115	5154	5192	5231
3	5308	5346	5385	5423	5461	5500	5538	5576	5614
4	5690	5729	5767	5805	5843	5881	5918	5956	5994
5	6070	6108	6145	6183	6221	6258	6296	6333	6371
6	6446	6483	6521	6558	6595	6633	6670	6707	6744
7	6819	6856	6893	6930	6967	7004	7041	7078	7115
8	7188	7225	7262	7298	7335	7372	7408	7445	7482
9	7555	7591	7628	7664	7700	7737	7773	7809	7846
120	07918	07954	07990	08027	08063	08099	08135	08171	08207
1	8279	8314	8350	8386	8422	8458	8493	8529	8565
2	8636	8672	8707	8743	8778	8814	8849	8884	8920
3	8991	9026	9061	9096	9132	9167	9202	9237	9272
4	9342	9377	9412	9447	9482	9517	9552	9587	9621
5	9691	9726	9760	9795	9830	9864	9899	9934	9968
6	10037	10072	10106	10140	10175	10209	10243	10278	10312
7	0380	0415	0449	0483	0517	0551	0585	0619	0653
8	0721	0755	0789	0823	0857	0890	0924	0958	0992
9	1059	1093	1126	1160	1193	1227	1261	1294	1327
130	11394	11428	11461	11494	11528	11561	11594	11628	11661
1	1727	1760	1793	1826	1860	1893	1926	1959	1992
2	2057	2090	2123	2156	2189	2222	2254	2287	2320
3	2385	2418	2450	2483	2516	2548	2581	2613	2646
4	2710	2743	2775	2808	2840	2872	2905	2937	2969
5	3033	3066	3098	3130	3162	3194	3226	3258	3290
6	3354	3386	3418	3450	3481	3513	3545	3577	3609
7	3672	3704	3735	3767	3799	3830	3862	3893	3925
8	3988	4019	4051	4082	4114	4145	4176	4208	4239
9	4301	4333	4364	4395	4426	4457	4489	4520	4551
140	14613	14644	14675	14706	14737	14768	14799	14829	14860
1	4922	4953	4983	5014	5045	5076	5106	5137	5168
2	5229	5259	5290	5320	5351	5381	5412	5442	5473
3	5534	5564	5594	5625	5655	5685	5715	5746	5776
4	5836	5866	5897	5927	5957	5987	6017	6047	6077
5	6137	6167	6197	6227	6256	6286	6316	6346	6376
6	6435	6465	6495	6524	6554	6584	6613	6643	6673
7	6732	6761	6791	6820	6850	6879	6909	6938	6967
8	7026	7056	7085	7114	7143	7173	7202	7231	7260
9	7319	7348	7377	7406	7435	7464	7493	7522	7551
150	17609	17638	17667	17696	17725	17754	17782	17811	1784

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150	17609	17638	17667	17696	17725	17754	17782	17811	17840	17869
1	7898	7926	7955	7984	8013	8041	8070	8099	8127	8156
2	8184	8213	8241	8270	8298	8327	8355	8384	8412	8441
3	8469	8498	8526	8554	8583	8611	8639	8667	8696	8724
4	8752	8780	8808	8837	8865	8893	8921	8949	8977	9005
5	9033	9061	9089	9117	9145	9173	9201	9229	9257	9285
6	9312	9340	9368	9396	9424	9451	9479	9507	9535	9562
7	9590	9618	9645	9673	9700	9728	9756	9783	9811	9838
8	9866	9893	9921	9948	9976	20003	20030	20058	20085	20112
9	20140	20167	20194	20222	20249	0276	0303	0330	0358	0385
160	20412	20439	20466	20493	20520	20548	20575	20602	20629	20656
1	0683	0710	0737	0763	0790	0817	0844	0871	0898	0925
2	0952	0978	1005	1032	1059	1085	1112	1139	1165	1192
3	1219	1245	1272	1299	1325	1352	1378	1405	1431	1458
4	1484	1511	1537	1564	1590	1617	1643	1669	1696	1722
5	1748	1775	1801	1827	1854	1880	1906	1932	1958	1985
6	2011	2037	2063	2089	2115	2141	2167	2194	2220	2246
7	2272	2298	2324	2350	2376	2401	2427	2453	2479	2505
8	2531	2557	2583	2608	2634	2660	2686	2712	2737	2763
9	2789	2814	2840	2866	2891	2917	2943	2968	2994	3019
170	23045	23070	23096	23121	23147	23172	23198	23223	23249	23274
1	3300	3325	3350	3376	3401	3426	3452	3477	3502	3528
2	3553	3578	3603	3629	3654	3679	3704	3729	3754	3779
3	3805	3830	3855	3880	3905	3930	3955	3980	4005	4030
4	4055	4080	4105	4130	4155	4180	4204	4229	4254	4279
5	4304	4329	4353	4378	4403	4428	4452	4477	4502	4527
6	4551	4576	4601	4625	4650	4674	4699	4724	4748	4773
7	4797	4822	4846	4871	4895	4920	4944	4969	4993	5018
8	5042	5066	5091	5115	5139	5164	5188	5212	5237	5261
9	5285	5310	5334	5358	5382	5406	5431	5455	5479	5503
180	25527	25551	25575	25600	25624	25648	25672	25696	25720	25744
1	5768	5792	5816	5840	5864	5888	5912	5935	5959	5983
2	6007	6031	6055	6079	6102	6126	6150	6174	6198	6221
3	6245	6269	6293	6316	6340	6364	6387	6411	6435	6458
4	6482	6505	6529	6553	6576	6600	6623	6647	6670	6694
5	6717	6741	6764	6788	6811	6834	6858	6881	6905	6928
6	6951	6975	6998	7021	7045	7068	7091	7114	7138	7161
7	7184	7207	7231	7254	7277	7300	7323	7346	7370	7393
8	7416	7439	7462	7485	7508	7531	7554	7577	7600	7623
9	7646	7669	7692	7715	7738	7761	7784	7807	7830	7852
190	27875	27898	27921	27944	27967	27989	28012	28035	28058	28081
1	8103	8126	8149	8171	8194	8217	8240	8262	8285	8307
2	8330	8353	8375	8398	8421	8443	8466	8488	8511	8533
3	8556	8578	8601	8623	8646	8668	8691	8713	8735	8758
4	8780	8803	8825	8847	8870	8892	8914	8937	8959	8981
5	9003	9026	9048	9070	9092	9115	9137	9159	9181	9203
6	9226	9248	9270	9292	9314	9336	9358	9380	9403	9425
7	9447	9469	9491	9513	9535	9557	9579	9601	9623	9645
8	9667	9688	9710	9732	9754	9776	9798	9820	9842	9863
9	9885	9907	9929	9951	9973	9994	30016	30038	30060	30081
200	*30103*	*30125*	*30146*	*30168*	30190	30211	30233	30255	30276	30298

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1	0320	0341	0363	0384	0406	0428	0449	0471	0492
2	0535	0557	0578	0600	0621	0643	0664	0685	0707
3	0750	0771	0792	0814	0835	0856	0878	0899	0920
4	0963	0984	1006	1027	1048	1069	1091	1112	1133
5	1175	1197	1218	1239	1260	1281	1302	1323	1345
6	1387	1408	1429	1450	1471	1492	1513	1534	1555
7	1597	1618	1639	1660	1681	1702	1723	1744	1765
8	1806	1827	1848	1869	1890	1911	1931	1952	1973
9	2015	2035	2056	2077	2098	2118	2139	2160	2181
210	32222	32243	32263	32284	32305	32325	32346	32366	32387
1	2428	2449	2469	2490	2510	2531	2552	2572	2593
2	2634	2654	2675	2695	2715	2736	2756	2777	2797
3	2838	2858	2879	2899	2919	2940	2960	2980	3001
4	3041	3062	3082	3102	3122	3143	3163	3183	3203
5	3244	3264	3284	3304	3325	3345	3365	3385	3405
6	3445	3465	3486	3506	3526	3546	3566	3586	3606
7	3646	3666	3686	3706	3726	3746	3766	3786	3806
8	3846	3866	3885	3905	3925	3945	3965	3985	4005
9	4044	4064	4084	4104	4124	4143	4163	4183	4203
220	34242	34262	34282	34301	34321	34341	34361	34380	34400
1	4439	4459	4479	4498	4518	4537	4557	4577	4596
2	4635	4655	4674	4694	4713	4733	4753	4772	4792
3	4830	4850	4869	4889	4908	4928	4947	4967	4986
4	5025	5044	5064	5083	5102	5122	5141	5160	5180
5	5218	5238	5257	5276	5295	5315	5334	5353	5372
6	5411	5430	5449	5468	5488	5507	5526	5545	5564
7	5603	5622	5641	5660	5679	5698	5717	5736	5755
8	5793	5813	5832	5851	5870	5889	5908	5927	5946
9	5984	6003	6021	6040	6059	6078	6097	6116	6135
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7	7475	7493	7511	7530	7548	7566	7585	7603	7621
8	7658	7676	7694	7712	7731	7749	7767	7785	7803
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6	9094	9111	9129	9146	9164	9182	9199	9217	9235
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9	*9620*	9637	9655	9672	9690	9707	9724	9742	9759
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3	0312	0329	0346	0364	0381	0398	0415	0432	0449	0466
4	0483	0500	0518	0535	0552	0569	0586	0603	0620	0637
5	0654	0671	0688	0705	0722	0739	0756	0773	0790	0807
6	0824	0841	0858	0875	0892	0909	0926	0943	0960	0976
7	0993	1010	1027	1044	1061	1078	1095	1111	1128	1145
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7	7276	7290	7305	7319	7334	7349	7363	7378	7392	7407
8	7422	7436	7451	7465	7480	7494	7509	7524	7538	7553
9	7567	7582	7596	7611	7625	7640	7654	7669	7683	7698
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6	8572	8586	8601	8615	8629	8643	8657	8671	8686
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4	9693	9707	9721	9734	9748	9762	9776	9790	9803
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9	0379	0393	0406	0420	0433	0447	0461	0474	0488
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3	0531	0541	0552	0563	0574	0584	0595	0606	061
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5	0746	0756	0767	0778	0788	0799	0810	0821	083
6	0853	0863	0874	$088\underline{5}$	0895	0906	0917	0927	093
7	0959	0970	0981	0991	1002	1013	1023	1034	104
8	1066	1077	1087	1098	1109	1119	1130	1140	11
9	1172	1183	1194	1204	$121\underline{5}$	1225	1236	1247	12
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1	1384	$139\underline{5}$	1405	1416	1426	1437	1448	1458	14
2	1490	1500	1511	1521	1532	1542	1553	1563	15
3	1595	1606	1616	1627	1637	1648	1658	1669	16
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5	$180\underline{5}$	1815	1826	1836	1847	1857	1868	1878	18
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7	2014	2024	2034	$204\underline{5}$	2055	2066	2076	2086	20
8	2118	2128	2138	2149	2159	2170	2180	2190	22
9	2221	2232	2242	2252	2263	2273	2284	2294	23
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1	2428	2439	2449	2459	2469	2480	2490	2500	251
2	2531	2542	2552	2562	2572	2583	2593	2603	261
3	2634	2644	$265\underline{5}$	$266\underline{5}$	2675	2685	2696	2706	271
4	2737	2747	2757	2767	2778	2788	2798	2808	281
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6	2941	2951	2961	2972	2982	2992	3002	3012	30
7	3043	3053	3063	3073	3083	3094	3104	3114	31
8	3144	$315\underline{5}$	$316\underline{5}$	$317\underline{5}$	$318\underline{5}$	3195	3205	3215	32
9	3246	3256	3266	3276	3286	3296	3306	3317	33
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5	5801	5811	5820	5830	5839	5849	5858	5868	5877	5887
6	5896	5906	5916	5925	5935	5944	5954	5963	5973	5982
7	5992	6001	6011	6020	6030	6039	6049	6058	6068	6077
8	6087	6096	6106	6115	6124	6134	6143	6153	6162	6172
9	6181	6191	6200	6210	6219	6229	6238	6247	6257	6266
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3	7486	7495	7504	7514	7523	7532	7541	7550	7560	7569
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7	7852	7861	7870	7879	7888	7897	7906	7916	7925	7934
8	7943	7952	7961	7970	7979	7988	7997	8006	8015	8024
9	8034	8043	8052	8061	8070	8079	8088	8097	8106	8115
80	68124	68133	68142	68151	68160	68169	68178	68187	68196	68205
1	8215	8224	8233	8242	8251	8260	8269	8278	8287	8296
2	8305	8314	8323	8332	8341	8350	8359	8368	8377	8386
3	8395	8404	8413	8422	8431	8440	8449	8458	8467	8476
4	8485	8494	8502	8511	8520	8529	8538	8547	8556	8565
5	8574	8583	8592	8601	8610	8619	8628	8637	8646	8655
6	8664	8673	8681	8690	8699	8708	8717	8726	8735	8744
7	8753	8762	8771	8780	8789	8797	8806	8815	8824	8833
8	8842	8851	8860	8869	8878	8886	8895	8904	8913	8922
9	8931	8940	8949	8958	8966	8975	8984	8993	9002	9011
90	69020	69028	69037	69046	69055	69064	69073	69082	69090	69099
1	9108	9117	9126	9135	9144	9152	9161	9170	9179	9188
2	9197	9205	9214	9223	9232	9241	9249	9258	9267	9276
3	9285	9294	9302	9311	9320	9329	9338	9346	9355	9364
4	9373	9381	9390	9399	9408	9417	9425	9434	9443	9452
5	9461	9469	9478	9487	9496	9504	9513	9522	9531	9539
6	9548	9557	9566	9574	9583	9592	9601	9609	9618	9627
7	9636	9644	9653	9662	9671	9679	9688	9697	9705	9714
8	9723	9732	9740	9749	9758	9767	9775	9784	9793	9801
9	9810	9819	9827	9836	9845	9854	9862	9871	9880	9888
00	*69897*	*69906*	*69914*	*69923*	69932	69940	69949	69958	69966	69975

TABLE XVII.—LOGARITHMS OF NUMBERS.

N	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
500	69897	69906	69914	69923	69932	69940	69949	69958	69966
1	9984	9992	70001	70010	70018	70027	70036	70044	70053
2	70070	70079	0088	0096	0105	0114	0122	0131	0140
3	0157	0165	0174	0183	0191	0200	0209	0217	0226
4	0243	0252	0260	0269	0278	0286	0295	0303	0312
5	0329	0338	0346	0355	0364	0372	0381	0389	0398
6	0415	0424	0432	0441	0449	0458	0467	0475	0484
7	0501	0509	0518	0526	0535	0544	0552	0561	0569
8	0586	0595	0603	0612	0621	0629	0638	0646	0655
9	0672	0680	0689	0697	0706	0714	0723	0731	0740
510	70757	70766	70774	70783	70791	70800	70808	70817	70825
1	0842	0851	0859	0868	0876	0885	0893	0902	0910
2	0927	0935	0944	0952	0961	0969	0978	0986	0995
3	1012	1020	1029	1037	1046	1054	1063	1071	1079
4	1096	1105	1113	1122	1130	1139	1147	1155	1164
5	1181	1189	1198	1206	1214	1223	1231	1240	1248
6	1265	1273	1282	1290	1299	1307	1315	1324	1332
7	1349	1357	1366	1374	1383	1391	1399	1408	1416
8	1433	1441	1450	1458	1466	1475	1483	1492	1500
9	1517	1525	1533	1542	1550	1559	1567	1575	1584
520	71600	71609	71617	71625	71634	71642	71650	71659	71667
1	1684	1692	1700	1709	1717	1725	1734	1742	1750
2	1767	1775	1784	1792	1800	1809	1817	1825	1834
3	1850	1858	1867	1875	1883	1892	1900	1908	1917
4	1933	1941	1950	1958	1966	1975	1983	1991	1999
5	2016	2024	2032	2041	2049	2057	2066	2074	2082
6	2099	2107	2115	2123	2132	2140	2148	2156	2165
7	2181	2189	2198	2206	2214	2222	2230	2239	2247
8	2263	2272	2280	2288	2296	2304	2313	2321	2329
9	2346	2354	2362	2370	2378	2387	2395	2403	2411
530	72428	72436	72444	72452	72460	72469	72477	72485	72493
1	2509	2518	2526	2534	2542	2550	2558	2567	2575
2	2591	2599	2607	2616	2624	2632	2640	2648	2656
3	2673	2681	2689	2697	2705	2713	2722	2730	2738
4	2754	2762	2770	2779	2787	2795	2803	2811	2819
5	2835	2843	2852	2860	2868	2876	2884	2892	2900
6	2916	2925	2933	2941	2949	2957	2965	2973	2981
7	2997	3006	3014	3022	3030	3038	3046	3054	3062
8	3078	3086	3094	3102	3111	3119	3127	3135	3143
9	3159	3167	3175	3183	3191	3199	3207	3215	3223
540	73239	73247	73255	73263	73272	73280	73288	73296	73304
1	3320	3328	3336	3344	3352	3360	3368	3376	3384
2	3400	3408	3416	3424	3432	3440	3448	3456	3464
3	3480	3488	3496	3504	3512	3520	3528	3536	3544
4	3560	3568	3576	3584	3592	3600	3608	3616	3624
5	3640	3648	3656	3664	3672	3679	3687	3695	3703
6	3719	3727	3735	3743	3751	3759	3767	3775	3783
7	3799	3807	3815	3823	3830	3838	3846	3854	3862
8	3878	3886	3894	3902	3910	3918	3926	3933	3941
9	3957	3965	3973	3981	3989	3997	4005	4013	4020
550	74036	74044	74052	74060	74068	74076	74084	74092	74099

N	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
50	74036	74044	74052	74060	74068	74076	74084	74092	74099	74107
1	4115	4123	4131	4139	4147	4155	4162	4170	4178	4186
2	4194	4202	4210	4218	4225	4233	4241	4249	4257	4265
3	4273	4280	4288	4296	4304	4312	4320	4327	4335	4343
4	4351	4359	4367	4374	4382	4390	4398	4406	4414	4421
5	4429	4437	4445	4453	4461	4468	4476	4484	4492	4500
6	4507	4515	4523	4531	4539	4547	4554	4562	4570	4578
7	4586	4593	4601	4609	4617	4624	4632	4640	4648	4656
8	4663	4671	4679	4687	4695	4702	4710	4718	4726	4733
9	4741	4749	4757	4764	4772	4780	4788	4796	4803	4811
60	74819	74827	74834	74842	74850	74858	74865	74873	74881	74889
1	4896	4904	4912	4920	4927	4935	4943	4950	4958	4966
2	4974	4981	4989	4997	5005	5012	5020	5028	5035	5043
3	5051	5059	5066	5074	5082	5089	5097	5105	5113	5120
4	5128	5136	5143	5151	5159	5166	5174	5182	5189	5197
5	5205	5213	5220	5228	5236	5243	5251	5259	5266	5274
6	5282	5289	5297	5305	5312	5320	5328	5335	5343	5351
7	5358	5366	5374	5381	5389	5397	5404	5412	5420	5427
8	5435	5442	5450	5458	5465	5473	5481	5488	5496	5504
9	5511	5519	5526	5534	5542	5549	5557	5565	5572	5580
70	75587	75595	75603	75610	75618	75626	75633	75641	75648	75656
1	5664	5671	5679	5686	5694	5702	5709	5717	5724	5732
2	5740	5747	5755	5762	5770	5778	5785	5793	5800	5808
3	5815	5823	5831	5838	5846	5853	5861	5868	5876	5884
4	5891	5899	5906	5914	5921	5929	5937	5944	5952	5959
5	5967	5974	5982	5989	5997	6005	6012	6020	6027	6035
6	6042	6050	6057	6065	6072	6080	6087	6095	6103	6110
7	6118	6125	6133	6140	6148	6155	6163	6170	6178	6185
8	6193	6200	6208	6215	6223	6230	6238	6245	6253	6260
9	6268	6275	6283	6290	6298	6305	6313	6320	6328	6335
80	76343	76350	76358	76365	76373	76380	76388	76395	76403	76410
1	6418	6425	6433	6440	6448	6455	6462	6470	6477	6485
2	6492	6500	6507	6515	6522	6530	6537	6545	6552	6559
3	6567	6574	6582	6589	6597	6604	6612	6619	6626	6634
4	6641	6649	6656	6664	6671	6678	6686	6693	6701	6708
5	6716	6723	6730	6738	6745	6753	6760	6768	6775	6782
6	6790	6797	6805	6812	6819	6827	6834	6842	6849	6856
7	6864	6871	6879	6886	6893	6901	6908	6916	6923	6930
8	6938	6945	6953	6960	6967	6975	6982	6989	6997	7004
9	7012	7019	7026	7034	7041	7048	7056	7063	7070	7078
90	77085	77093	77100	77107	77115	77122	77129	77137	77144	77151
1	7159	7166	7173	7181	7188	7195	7203	7210	7217	7225
2	7232	7240	7247	7254	7262	7269	7276	7283	7291	7298
3	7305	7313	7320	7327	7335	7342	7349	7357	7364	7371
4	7379	7386	7393	7401	7408	7415	7422	7430	7437	7444
5	7452	7459	7466	7474	7481	7488	7495	7503	7510	7517
6	7525	7532	7539	7546	7554	7561	7568	7576	7583	7590
7	7597	7605	7612	7619	7627	7634	7641	7648	7656	7663
8	7670	7677	7685	7692	7699	7706	7714	7721	7728	7735
9	7743	7750	7757	7764	7772	7779	7786	7793	7801	7808
0	*77815*	*77822*	*77830*	*77837*	77844	77851	77859	77866	77873	77880

N	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
600	77815	77822	77830	77837	77844	77851	77859	77866	77873
1	7887	7895	7902	7909	7916	7924	7931	7938	7945
2	7960	7967	7974	7981	7988	7996	8003	8010	8017
3	8032	8039	8046	8053	8061	8068	8075	8082	8089
4	8104	8111	8118	8125	8132	8140	8147	8154	8161
5	8176	8183	8190	8197	8204	8211	8219	8226	8233
6	8247	8254	8262	8269	8276	8283	8290	8297	8305
7	8319	8326	8333	8340	8347	8355	8362	8369	8376
8	8390	8398	8405	8412	8419	8426	8433	8440	8447
9	8462	8469	8476	8483	8490	8497	8504	8512	8519
610	78533	78540	78547	78554	78561	78569	78576	78583	78590
1	8604	8611	8618	8625	8633	8640	8647	8654	8661
2	8675	8682	8689	8696	8704	8711	8718	8725	8732
3	8746	8753	8760	8767	8774	8781	8789	8796	8803
4	8817	8824	8831	8838	8845	8852	8859	8866	8873
5	8888	8895	8902	8909	8916	8923	8930	8937	8944
6	8958	8965	8972	8979	8986	8993	9000	9007	9014
7	9029	9036	9043	9050	9057	9064	9071	9078	9085
8	9099	9106	9113	9120	9127	9134	9141	9148	9155
9	9169	9176	9183	9190	9197	9204	9211	9218	9225
620	79239	79246	79253	79260	79267	79274	79281	79288	79295
1	9309	9316	9323	9330	9337	9344	9351	9358	9365
2	9379	9386	9393	9400	9407	9414	9421	9428	9435
3	9449	9456	9463	9470	9477	9484	9491	9498	9505
4	9518	9525	9532	9539	9546	9553	9560	9567	9574
5	9588	9595	9602	9609	9616	9623	9630	9637	9644
6	9657	9664	9671	9678	9685	9692	9699	9706	9713
7	9727	9734	9741	9748	9754	9761	9768	9775	9782
8	9796	9803	9810	9817	9824	9831	9837	9844	9851
9	9865	9872	9879	9886	9893	9900	9906	9913	9920
630	79934	79941	79948	79955	79962	79969	79975	79982	79989
1	80003	80010	80017	80024	80030	80037	80044	80051	80058
2	0072	0079	0085	0092	0099	0106	0113	0120	0127
3	0140	0147	0154	0161	0168	0175	0182	0188	0195
4	0209	0216	0223	0229	0236	0243	0250	0257	0264
5	0277	0284	0291	0298	0305	0312	0318	0325	0332
6	0346	0353	0359	0366	0373	0380	0387	0393	0400
7	0414	0421	0428	0434	0441	0448	0455	0462	0468
8	0482	0489	0496	0502	0509	0516	0523	0530	0536
9	0550	0557	0564	0570	0577	0584	0591	0598	0604
640	80618	80625	80632	80638	80645	80652	80659	80665	80672
1	0686	0693	0699	0706	0713	0720	0726	0733	0740
2	0754	0760	0767	0774	0781	0787	0794	0801	0808
3	0821	0828	0835	0841	0848	0855	0862	0868	0875
4	0889	0895	0902	0909	0916	0922	0929	0936	0943
5	0956	0963	0969	0976	0983	0990	0996	1003	1010
6	1023	1030	1037	1043	1050	1057	1064	1070	1077
7	1090	1097	1104	1111	1117	1124	1131	1137	1144
8	1158	1164	1171	1178	1184	1191	1198	1204	1211
9	1224	1231	1238	1245	1251	1258	1265	1271	1278
0	81291	81298	81305	81311	81318	81325	81331	81338	81345

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650	81291	81298	81305	81311	81318	81325	81331	81338	81345	81351
1	1358	1365	1371	1378	1385	1391	1398	1405	1411	1418
2	1425	1431	1438	1445	1451	1458	1465	1471	1478	1485
3	1491	1498	1505	1511	1518	1525	1531	1538	1544	1551
4	1558	1564	1571	1578	1584	1591	1598	1604	1611	1617
5	1624	1631	1637	1644	1651	1657	1664	1671	1677	1684
6	1690	1697	1704	1710	1717	1723	1730	1737	1743	1750
7	1757	1763	1770	1776	1783	1790	1796	1803	1809	1816
8	1823	1829	1836	1842	1849	1856	1862	1869	1875	1882
9	1889	1895	1902	1908	1915	1921	1928	1935	1941	1948
660	81954	81961	81968	81974	81981	81987	81994	82000	82007	82014
1	2020	2027	2033	2040	2046	2053	2060	2066	2073	2079
2	2086	2092	2099	2105	2112	2119	2125	2132	2138	2145
3	2151	2158	2164	2171	2178	2184	2191	2197	2204	2210
4	2217	2223	2230	2236	2243	2249	2256	2263	2269	2276
5	2282	2289	2295	2302	2308	2315	2321	2328	2334	2341
6	2347	2354	2360	2367	2373	2380	2387	2393	2400	2406
7	2413	2419	2426	2432	2439	2445	2452	2458	2465	2471
8	2478	2484	2491	2497	2504	2510	2517	2523	2530	2536
9	2543	2549	2556	2562	2569	2575	2582	2588	2595	2601
670	82607	82614	82620	82627	82633	82640	82646	82653	82659	82666
1	2672	2679	2685	2692	2698	2705	2711	2718	2724	2730
2	2737	2743	2750	2756	2763	2769	2776	2782	2789	2795
3	2802	2808	2814	2821	2827	2834	2840	2847	2853	2860
4	2866	2872	2879	2885	2892	2898	2905	2911	2918	2924
5	2930	2937	2943	2950	2956	2963	2969	2975	2982	2988
6	2995	3001	3008	3014	3020	3027	3033	3040	3046	3052
7	3059	3065	3072	3078	3085	3091	3097	3104	3110	3117
8	3123	3129	3136	3142	3149	3155	3161	3168	3174	3181
9	3187	3193	3200	3206	3213	3219	3225	3232	3238	3245
680	83251	83257	83264	83270	83276	83283	83289	83296	83302	83308
1	3315	3321	3327	3334	3340	3347	3353	3359	3366	3372
2	3378	3385	3391	3398	3404	3410	3417	3423	3429	3436
3	3442	3448	3455	3461	3467	3474	3480	3487	3493	3499
4	3506	3512	3518	3525	3531	3537	3544	3550	3556	3563
5	3569	3575	3582	3588	3594	3601	3607	3613	3620	3626
6	3632	3639	3645	3651	3658	3664	3670	3677	3683	3689
7	3696	3702	3708	3715	3721	3727	3734	3740	3746	3753
8	3759	3765	3771	3778	3784	3790	3797	3803	3809	3816
9	3822	3828	3835	3841	3847	3853	3860	3866	3872	3879
690	83885	83891	83897	83904	83910	83916	83923	83929	83935	83942
1	3948	3954	3960	3967	3973	3979	3985	3992	3998	4004
2	4011	4017	4023	4029	4036	4042	4048	4055	4061	4067
3	4073	4080	4086	4092	4098	4105	4111	4117	4123	4130
4	4136	4142	4148	4155	4161	4167	4173	4180	4186	4192
5	4198	4205	4211	4217	4223	4230	4236	4242	4248	4255
6	4261	4267	4273	4280	4286	4292	4298	4305	4311	4317
7	4323	4330	4336	4342	4348	4354	4361	4367	4373	4379
8	4386	4392	4398	4404	4410	4417	4423	4429	4435	4442
9	4448	4454	4460	4466	4473	4479	4485	4491	4497	4504
700	*84510*	*84516*	*84522*	*84528*	84535	84541	84547	84553	84559	84566

N	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
700	84510	84516	84522	84528	84535	84541	84547	84553	84559
1	4572	4578	4584	4590	4597	4603	4609	4615	4621
2	4634	4640	4646	4652	4658	4665	4671	4677	4683
3	4696	4702	4708	4714	4720	4726	4733	4739	4745
4	4757	4763	4770	4776	4782	4788	4794	4800	4807
5	4819	4825	4831	4837	4844	4850	4856	4862	4868
6	4880	4887	4893	4899	4905	4911	4917	4924	4930
7	4942	4948	4954	4960	4967	4973	4979	4985	4991
8	5003	5009	5016	5022	5028	5034	5040	5046	5052
9	5065	5071	5077	5083	5089	5095	5101	5107	5114
710	85126	85132	85138	85144	85150	85156	85163	85169	85175
1	5187	5193	5199	5205	5211	5217	5224	5230	5236
2	5248	5254	5260	5266	5272	5278	5285	5291	5297
3	5309	5315	5321	5327	5333	5339	5345	5352	5358
4	5370	5376	5382	5388	5394	5400	5406	5412	5418
5	5431	5437	5443	5449	5455	5461	5467	5473	5479
6	5491	5497	5503	5509	5516	5522	5528	5534	5540
7	5552	5558	5564	5570	5576	5582	5588	5594	5600
8	5612	5618	5625	5631	5637	5643	5649	5655	5661
9	5673	5679	5685	5691	5697	5703	5709	5715	5721
720	85733	85739	85745	85751	85757	85763	85769	85775	85781
1	5794	5800	5806	5812	5818	5824	5830	5836	5842
2	5854	5860	5866	5872	5878	5884	5890	5896	5902
3	5914	5920	5926	5932	5938	5944	5950	5956	5962
4	5974	5980	5986	5992	5998	6004	6010	6016	6022
5	6034	6040	6046	6052	6058	6064	6070	6076	6082
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4	0526	0531	0536	0542	0547	0553	0558	0563	0569
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6	5713	5718	5722	5727	5732	5737	5742	5746	57
7	5761	5766	5770	5775	5780	5785̲	5789	5794	57
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9	7727	7731	7736	7740	7745̲	7749	7754	7759	77
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1	8722	8726	8731	8735	8740	8744	8749	8753	8758	8762
2	8767	8771	8776	8780	8784	8789	8793	8798	8802	8807
3	8811	8816	8820	8825	8829	8834	8838	8843	8847	8851
4	8856	8860	8865	8869	8874	8878	8883	8887	8892	8896
5	8900	8905	8909	8914	8918	8923	8927	8932	8936	8941
6	8945	8949	8954	8958	8963	8967	8972	8976	8981	8985
7	8989	8994	8998	9003	9007	9012	9016	9021	9025	9029
8	9034	9038	9043	9047	9052	9056	9061	9065	9069	9074
9	9078	9083	9087	9092	9096	9100	9105	9109	9114	9118
980	99123	99127	99131	99136	99140	99145	99149	99154	99158	99162
1	9167	9171	9176	9180	9185	9189	9193	9198	9202	9207
2	9211	9216	9220	9224	9229	9233	9238	9242	9247	9251
3	9255	9260	9264	9269	9273	9277	9282	9286	9291	9295
4	9300	9304	9308	9313	9317	9322	9326	9330	9335	9339
5	9344	9348	9352	9357	9361	9366	9370	9374	9379	9383
6	9388	9392	9396	9401	9405	9410	9414	9419	9423	9427
7	9432	9436	9441	9445	9449	9454	9458	9463	9467	9471
8	9476	9480	9484	9489	9493	9498	9502	9506	9511	9515
9	9520	9524	9528	9533	9537	9542	9546	9550	9555	9559
990	99564	99568	99572	99577	99581	99585	99590	99594	99599	99603
1	9607	9612	9616	9621	9625	9629	9634	9638	9642	9647
2	9651	9656	9660	9664	9669	9673	9677	9682	9686	9691
3	9695	9699	9704	9708	9712	9717	9721	9726	9730	9734
4	9739	9743	9747	9752	9756	9760	9765	9769	9774	9778
5	9782	9787	9791	9795	9800	9804	9808	9813	9817	9822
6	9826	9830	9835	9839	9843	9848	9852	9856	9861	9865
7	9870	9874	9878	9883	9887	9891	9896	9900	9904	9909
8	9913	9917	9922	9926	9930	9935	9939	9944	9948	9952
9	9957	9961	9965	9970	9974	9978	9983	9987	9991	9996
1000	00000	00004	00009	00013	00017	00022	00026	00030	00035	0003

USE OF THE COLUMNS HEADED $(q-l)$ AND $(q+l)$, PAGES 719, 720.

The ordinary methods of interpolation for seconds of arc are not accurate for *sines, tangents,* and *cotangents* when angles are between 0° and 2°, or for *cosines* when angles are between 88° and 90°. When, therefore, great accuracy is desired the methods given below may be used

I. *Given: Angle A. Required: log sin A.*

$\log \sin A = \log A$ (in seconds) $+ (q-l)$ for sin.*

II. *Given: log sin A. Required: Angle A.*

$\log A$ (in seconds) $= \log \sin A - (q-l)$ for sin.*

Illustration I:
To find log sin 0° 36′ 25″.
$\log A$ in sec. (2185″) = 3.339451
$(q-l)$ for 0° 36′ (sin)* = 4.685567
log sin 0° 36′ 25″ = 8.025018

Illustration II:
$\log \sin A$ = 8.096340. **Find A.**
$\log \sin A$ = 8.096340
$(q-l)$ for sin* = 4.685564
$\log A$ (in sec.) = 3.410776
A (in sec.) = 2575′ or A = 0° 42′ 55″

III. *Given: Angle A. Required: log tan A.*

$\log \tan A = \log A$ (in seconds) $+ (q-l)$ for tan.*

IV. *Given: log tan A. Required: Angle A.*

$\log A$ (in seconds) $= \log \tan A - (q-l)$ for tan.*

Illustration III:
To find log tan 0° 36′ 25″.
$\log A$ in sec. (2185″) = 3.339451
$(q-l)$ for 0° 36′ (tan)* = 4.685591
log tan 0° 36′ 25″ = 8.025042

Illustration IV:
$\log \tan A$ = 8.220000. **Find A.**
$\log \tan A$ = 8.220000
$(q-l)$ for tan* = 4.685615
$\log A$ (in sec.) = 3.534385
A (in sec.) = 3423″ or A = 0° 57′ 03″

V. *Given: Angle A. Required: log cot A.*

$\log \cot A = (q+l) - \log A$ (in seconds).

VI. *Given: log cot A. Required: Angle A.*

$\log A$ (in seconds) $= (q+l) - \log \cot A$.

Illustration V:
To find log cot 0° 56′ 12″.
$(q+l)$ = 15.314387
$\log A$ in sec. (3372″) = 3.527888
$\log \cot A$ = 11.786499

Illustration VI:
$\log \cot A$ = 12.000 000. **Find A.**
$(q+l)$ = 15.314 411
$\log \cot A$ = 12.000 000
$\log A$ (in sec.) = 3.314411
A (in sec.) = 2063″ or A = 0° 34′ 23″

Cosines.—When the cosine of an angle from 88° to 90° is given or required, use the sine of 90° minus the angle, proceeding as above.

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* For *all* angles up to 2° the first four figures of $(q-l)$ are 4.685 and the first five figures of $(q+l)$ are 15.314. The last three figures are to be found in the column headed $(q-l)$ or $(q+l)$ opposite the angle most nearly corresponding to A. Note that the $(q-l)$ column is double, the left-hand half being used for *sines* and the right-hand half for *tangents*.

0° **TABLE XVIII.—LOGARITHMIC SINES.** 179°

″	′	Sine.	q − l		Tang.	Cotang.	q + l	D 1″	Cosine.	′
			4.685				15.314			
0	0	Inf. neg.	575	575	Inf. neg.	Inf. pos.	425		ten	60
60	1	6.463726	575	575	6.463726	13.536274	425		ten	59
120	2	.764756	575	575	.764756	.235244	425		ten	58
180	3	6.940847	575	575	6.940847	13.059153	425		ten	57
240	4	7.065786	575	575	7.065786	12.934214	425		ten	56
300	5	.162696	575	575	.162696	.837304	425		ten	55
360	6	.241877	575	575	.241878	.758122	425	.02	9.999999	54
420	7	.308824	575	575	.308825	.691175	425	.00	.999999	53
480	8	.366816	574	576	.366817	.633183	424	.00	.999999	52
540	9	.417968	574	576	.417970	.582030	424	.00	.999999	51
600	10	.463726	574	576	.463727	.536273	424	.02	.999998	50
660	11	7.505118	574	576	7.505120	12.494880	424	.00	9.999998	49
720	12	.542906	574	577	.542909	.457091	423	.02	.999997	48
780	13	.577668	574	577	.577672	.422328	423	.00	.999997	47
840	14	.609853	574	577	.609857	.390143	423	.02	.999996	46
900	15	.639816	573	578	.639820	.360180	422	.00	.999996	45
960	16	.667845	573	578	.667849	.332151	422	.02	.999995	44
1020	17	.694173	573	578	.694179	.305821	422	.00	.999995	43
1080	18	.718997	573	579	.719003	.280997	421	.02	.999994	42
1140	19	.742478	573	579	.742484	.257516	421	.02	.999993	41
1200	20	.764754	572	580	.764761	.235239	420	.00	.999993	40
1260	21	7.785943	572	580	7.785951	12.214049	420	.02	9.999992	39
1320	22	.806146	572	581	.806155	.193845	419	.02	.999991	38
1380	23	.825451	572	581	.825460	.174540	419	.02	.999990	37
1440	24	.843934	571	582	.843944	.156056	418	.02	.999989	36
1500	25	.861662	571	583	.861674	.138326	417	.00	.999989	35
1560	26	.878695	571	583	.878708	.121292	417	.02	.999988	34
1620	27	.895085	570	584	.895099	.104901	416	.02	.999987	33
1680	28	.910879	570	584	.910894	.089106	416	.02	.999986	32
1740	29	.926119	570	585	.926134	.073866	415	.02	.999985	31
1800	30	.940842	569	586	.940858	.059142	414	.03	.999983	30
1860	31	7.955082	569	587	7.955100	12.044900	413	.02	9.999982	29
1920	32	.968870	569	587	.968889	.031111	413	.02	.999981	28
1980	33	.982233	568	588	.982253	.017747	412	.02	.999980	27
2040	34	7.995198	568	589	7.995219	12.004781	411	.02	.999979	26
2100	35	8.007787	567	590	8.007809	11.992191	410	.03	.999977	25
2160	36	.020021	567	591	.020044	.979956	409	.02	.999976	24
2220	37	.031919	566	592	.031945	.968055	408	.02	.999975	23
2280	38	.043501	566	593	.043527	.956473	407	.03	.999973	22
2340	39	.054781	566	593	.054809	.945191	407	.02	.999972	21
2400	40	.065776	565	594	.065806	.934194	406	.02	.999971	20
2460	41	8.076500	565	595	8.076531	11.923469	405	.03	9.999969	19
2520	42	.086965	564	596	.086997	.913003	404	.02	.999968	18
2580	43	.097183	564	598	.097217	.902783	402	.03	.999966	17
2640	44	.107167	563	599	.107203	.892797	401	.03	.999964	16
2700	45	.116926	562	600	.116963	.883037	400	.02	.999963	15
2760	46	.126471	562	601	.126510	.873490	399	.03	.999961	14
2820	47	.135810	561	602	.135851	.864149	398	.03	.999959	13
2880	48	.144953	561	603	.144996	.855004	397	.02	.999958	12
2940	49	.153907	560	604	.153952	.846048	396	.03	.999956	11
3000	50	.162681	560	605	.162727	.837273	395	.03	.999954	10
3060	51	8.171280	559	607	8.171328	11.828672	393	.03	9.999952	9
3120	52	.179713	558	608	.179763	.820237	392	.03	.999950	8
3180	53	.187985	558	609	.188036	.811964	391	.03	.999948	7
3240	54	.196102	557	611	.196156	.803844	389	.03	.999946	6
3300	55	.204070	556	612	.204126	.795874	388	.03	.999944	5
3360	56	.211895	556	613	.211953	.788047	387	.03	.999942	4
3420	57	.219581	555	615	.219641	.780359	385	.03	.999940	3
3480	58	.227134	554	616	.227195	.772805	384	.03	.999938	2
3540	59	.234557	554	618	.234621	.765379	382	.03	.999936	1
3600	60	8.241855	553	619	8.241921	11.758079	381	.03	9.999934	0
			4.685				15.314			
″	′	Cosine.	q − l		Cotang.	Tang.	q + l	D 1″	Sine.	′

″	′	Sine.	q − l		Tang.	Cotang.	q+l	D1″	Cosine.	′
			4.685				15.314			
3600	C	8.241855	553	619	8.241921	11.758079	381		9.999934	60
3660	1	.249033	552	620	.249102	.750898	380	.05	.999932	59
3720	2	.256094	551	622	.256165	.743835	378	.05	.999929	58
3780	3	263042	551	623	.263115	.736885	377	.03	.999927	57
3840	4	.269881	550	625	.269956	.730044	375	.03	.999925	56
3900	5	.276614	549	627	.276691	.723309	373	.05	.999922	55
3960	6	.283243	548	628	.283323	.716677	372	.03	.999920	54
4020	7	.289773	547	630	.289856	.710144	370	.03	.999918	53
4080	8	.296207	546	632	.296292	.703708	368	.05	.999915	52
4140	9	.302546	546	633	.302634	.697366	367	.03	.999913	51
4200	10	.308794	545	635	.308884	691116	365	.05	.999910	50
4260	11	8.314954	544	637	8.315046	11.684954	363	.05	9.999907	49
4320	12	.321027	543	638	.321122	.678878	362	.03	.999905	48
4380	13	.327016	542	640	.327114	.672886	360	.05	.999902	47
4440	14	.332924	541	642	.333025	.666975	358	.05	.999899	46
4500	15	.338753	540	644	.338856	.661144	356	.03	.999897	45
4560	16	.344504	539	646	.344610	.655390	354	.05	.999894	44
4620	17	.350181	539	648	.350289	.649711	352	.05	.999891	43
4680	18	.355783	538	649	.355895	.644105	351	.05	.999888	42
4740	19	.361315	537	651	.361430	.638570	349	.05	.999885	41
4800	20	.366777	536	653	.366895	.633105	347	.05	.999882	40
4860	21	8.372171	535	655	8.372292	11.627708	345	.05	9.999879	39
4920	22	.377499	534	657	.377622	.622378	343	.05	.999876	38
4980	23	.382762	533	659	.382889	.617111	341	.05	.999873	37
5040	24	.387962	532	661	.388092	.611908	339	.05	.999870	36
5100	25	.393101	531	663	.393234	.606766	337	.05	.999867	35
5160	26	.398179	530	666	.398315	.601685	334	.05	.999864	34
5220	27	.403199	529	668	.403338	.596662	332	.05	.999861	33
5280	28	.408161	527	670	.408304	.591696	330	.05	.999858	32
5340	29	.413068	526	672	.413213	.586787	328	.07	.999854	31
5400	30	.417919	525	674	.418068	.581932	326	.05	.999851	30
5460	31	8.422717	524	676	8.422869	11.577131	324	.05	9.999848	29
5520	32	.427462	523	679	.427618	.572382	321	.07	.999844	28
5580	33	.432156	522	681	.432315	.567685	319	.05	.999841	27
5640	34	.436800	521	683	.436962	.563038	317	.05	.999838	26
5700	35	.441394	520	685	.441560	.558440	315	.07	.999834	25
5760	36	.445941	518	688	.446110	.553890	312	.05	.999831	24
5820	37	.450440	517	690	.450613	.549387	310	.07	.999827	23
5880	38	.454893	516	693	.455070	.544930	307	.05	.999824	22
5940	39	.459301	515	695	.459481	.540519	305	.07	.999820	21
6000	40	.463665	514	697	.463849	.536151	303	.07	.999816	20
6060	41	8.467985	512	700	8.468172	11.531828	300	.05	9.999813	19
6120	42	.472263	511	702	.472454	.527546	298	.07	.999809	18
6180	43	.476498	510	705	.476693	.523307	295	.07	.999805	17
6240	44	.480693	509	707	.480892	.519108	293	.07	.999801	16
6300	45	.484848	507	710	.485050	.514950	290	.07	.999797	15
6360	46	.488963	506	713	.489170	.510830	287	.05	.999794	14
6420	47	.493040	505	715	.493250	.506750	285	.07	.999790	13
6480	48	.497078	503	718	.497293	.502707	282	.07	.999786	12
6540	49	.501080	502	720	.501298	.498702	280	.07	.999782	11
6600	50	.505045	501	723	.505267	.494733	277	.07	.999778	10
6660	51	8.508974	499	726	8.509200	11.490800	27	.07	9.999774	9
6720	52	.512867	498	729	.513098	.486902	271	.08	.999769	8
6780	53	.516726	497	731	.516961	.483039	269	.07	.999765	7
6840	54	.520551	495	734	.520790	.479210	266	.07	.999761	6
6900	55	.524343	494	737	524586	.475414	263	.07	.999757	5
6960	56	.528102	492	740	.528349	.471651	260	.07	.999753	4
7020	57	.531828	491	743	.532080	.467920	257	.08	.999748	3
7080	58	.535523	490	745	.535779	.464221	255	.07	.999744	2
7140	59	.539186	488	748	.539447	.460553	252	.07	.999740	1
7200	60	8.542819	487	751	8.543084	11.456916	249	.08	9.999735	0
			4.685				15.314			
″	′	Cosine.	q − l		Cotang.	Tang.	q+l	D1″	Sine.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	8.542819	60.05	9.999735	.07	8.543084	60.12	11.456916	60
1	.546422	59.55	.999731	.08	.546691	59.62	.453309	59
2	.549995	59.07	.999726	.07	.550268	59.15	.449732	58
3	.553539	58.58	.999722	.08	.553817	58.65	.446183	57
4	.557054	58.10	.999717	.07	.557336	58.20	.442664	56
5	.560540	57.65	.999713	.08	.560828	57.72	.439172	55
6	.563999	57.20	.999708	.07	.564291	57.27	.435709	54
7	.567431	56.75	.999704	.08	.567727	56.83	.432273	53
8	.570836	56.30	.999699	.08	571137	56.38	.428863	52
9	.574214	55.87	.999694	.08	574520	55.95	.425480	51
10	.577566	55.43	.999689	.07	.577877	55.52	.422123	50
11	8.580892	55.02	9.999685	.08	8.581208	55.10	11.418792	49
12	.584193	54.60	.999680	.08	.584514	54.68	.415486	48
13	.587469	54.20	.999675	.08	.587795	54.27	.412205	47
14	.590721	53.78	.999670	.08	.591051	53.87	.408949	46
15	.593948	53.40	.999665	.08	.594283	53.48	.405717	45
16	.597152	53.00	.999660	.08	.597492	53.08	.402508	44
17	.600332	52.62	999655	.08	.6006[illegible]	52.70	.399325	43
18	.603489	52.25	.999650	.08	.603839	52.32	.396161	42
19	.606623	51.85	.999645	.08	.606978	51.93	.393022	41
20	.609734	51.48	.999640	.08	.610094	51.58	.389906	40
21	8.612823	51.13	9.999635	.10	8.613189	51.22	11.386811	39
22	.615891	50.77	.999629	.08	.616262	50.85	.383738	38
23	.618937	50.42	.999624	.08	.619313	50.50	.380687	37
24	.621962	50.05	.999619	.08	.622343	50.15	.377657	36
25	.624965	49.72	.999614	.10	.625352	49.80	.374648	35
26	.627948	49.38	.999608	.08	.628340	49.47	.371660	34
27	.630911	49.05	.999603	.10	.631308	49.13	.368692	33
28	.633854	48.70	.999597	.08	.634256	48.80	.365744	32
29	.636776	48.40	.999592	.10	.637184	48.48	.362816	31
30	.639680	48.05	.999586	.08	.640093	48.15	.359907	30
31	8.642563	47.75	9.999581	.10	8.642982	47.85	11.357018	29
32	.645428	47.43	.999575	.08	.645853	47.52	.354147	28
33	.648274	47.13	.999570	.10	.648704	47.22	.351296	27
34	.651102	46.82	.999564	.10	.651537	46.92	.348463	26
35	.653911	46.52	.999558	.08	.654352	46.62	.345648	25
36	.656702	46.22	.999553	.10	.657149	46.32	.342851	24
37	.659475	45.92	.999547	.10	.659928	46.02	.340072	23
38	.662230	45.63	.999541	.10	.662689	45.73	.337311	22
39	.664968	45.35	.999535	.10	.665433	45.45	.334567	21
40	.667689	45.07	.999529	.08	.668160	45.17	.331840	20
41	8.670393	44.78	9.999524	.10	8.670870	44.88	11.329130	19
42	.673080	44.52	999518	.10	.673563	44.60	.326437	18
43	.675751	44.23	.999512	.10	.676239	44.35	.323761	17
44	.678405	43.97	.999506	.10	.678900	44.07	.321100	16
45	.681043	43.70	.999500	.12	.681544	43.80	.318456	15
46	.683665	43.45	.999493	.10	.684172	43.53	.315828	14
47	.686272	43.18	.999487	.10	.686784	43.28	.313216	13
48	.688863	42.92	.999481	.10	.689381	43.03	.310619	12
49	.691438	42.67	.999475	.10	.691963	42.77	.308037	11
50	.693998	42.42	.999469	.10	.694529	42.53	.305471	10
51	8.696543	42.17	9.999463	.12	8.697081	42.27	11.302919	9
52	.699073	41.93	.999456	.10	.699617	42.03	.300383	8
53	.701589	41.68	.999450	.12	.702139	41.78	.297861	7
54	.704090	41.45	.999443	.10	.704646	41.57	.295354	6
55	.706577	41.20	.999437	.10	.707140	41.30	.292860	5
56	.709049	40.97	.999431	.12	.709618	41.08	.290382	4
57	.711507	40.75	.999424	.10	.712083	40.85	.287917	3
58	.713952	40.52	.999418	.12	.714534	40.63	.285466	2
59	.716383	40.28	.999411	.12	.716972	40.40	.283028	1
60	8.718800		9.999404		8.719396		11.280604	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

'	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.
0	8.718800	40.07	9.999404	.10	8.719396	40.17	11.280604
1	.721204	39.85	.999398	.12	.721806	39.97	.278194
2	.723595	39.62	.999391	.12	.724204	39.73	.275796
3	.725972	39.42	.999384	.10	.726588	39.52	.273412
4	.728337	39.18	.999378	.12	.728959	39.30	.271041
5	.730688	38.98	.999371	.12	.731317	39.10	.268683
6	.733027	38.78	.999364	.12	.733663	38.88	.266337
7	.735354	38.55	.999357	.12	.735996	38.68	.264004
8	.737667	38.37	.999350	.12	.738317	38.48	.261683
9	.739969	38.17	.999343	.12	.740626	38.27	.259374
10	.742259	37.95	.999336	.12	.742922	38.08	.257078
11	8.744536	37.77	9.999329	.12	8.745207	37.87	11.254793
12	.746802	37.55	.999322	.12	.747479	37.68	.252521
13	.749055	37.37	.999315	.12	.749740	37.48	.250260
14	.751297	37.18	.999308	.12	.751989	37.30	.248011
15	.753528	36.98	.999301	.12	.754227	37.10	.245773
16	.755747	36.80	.999294	.12	.756453	36.92	.243547
17	.757955	36.60	.999287	.13	.758668	36.73	.241332
18	.760151	36.43	.999279	.12	.760872	36.55	.239128
19	.762337	36.23	.999272	.12	.763065	36.35	.236935
20	.764511	36.07	.999265	.13	.765246	36.18	.234754
21	8.766675	35.88	9.999257	.12	8.767417	36.02	11.232583
22	.768828	35.70	.999250	.13	.769578	35.82	.230422
23	.770970	35.52	.999242	.12	.771727	35.65	.228273
24	.773101	35.37	.999235	.13	.773866	35.48	.226134
25	.775223	35.17	.999227	.12	.775996	35.32	.224004
26	.777333	35.02	.999220	.13	.778114	35.13	.221886
27	.779434	34.83	.999212	.12	.780222	34.97	.219778
28	.781524	34.68	.999205	.13	.782320	34.80	.217680
29	.783605	34.50	.999197	.13	.784408	34.63	.215592
30	.785675	34.35	.999189	.13	.786486	34.47	.213514
31	8.787736	34.18	9.999181	.12	8.788554	34.32	11.211446
32	.789787	34.02	.999174	.13	.790613	34.15	.209387
33	.791828	33.85	.999166	.13	.792662	33.98	.207338
34	.793859	33.70	.999158	.13	.794701	33.83	.205299
35	.795881	33.55	.999150	.13	.796731	33.68	.203269
36	.797894	33.38	.999142	.13	.798752	33.52	.201248
37	.799897	33.25	.999134	.13	.800763	33.37	.199237
38	.801892	33.07	.999126	.13	.802765	33.22	.197235
39	.803876	32.93	.999118	.13	.804758	33.07	.195242
40	.805852	32.78	.999110	.13	.806742	32.92	.193258
41	8.807819	32.63	9.999102	.13	8.808717	32.77	11.191283
42	.809777	32.48	.999094	.13	.810683	32.63	.189317
43	.811726	32.35	.999086	.15	.812641	32.47	.187359
44	.813667	32.20	.999077	.13	.814589	32.33	.185411
45	.815599	32.05	.999069	.13	.816529	32.20	.183471
46	.817522	31.90	.999061	.13	.818461	32.05	.181539
47	.819436	31.78	.999053	.15	.820384	31.90	.179616
48	.821343	31.62	.999044	.13	.822298	31.78	.177702
49	.823240	31.50	.999036	.15	.824205	31.63	.175795
50	.825130	31.35	.999027	.13	.826103	31.48	.173897
51	8.827011	31.22	9.999019	.15	8.827992	31.37	11.172008
52	.828884	31.08	.999010	.13	.829874	31.23	.170126
53	.830749	30.97	.999002	.15	.831748	31.08	.168252
54	.832607	30.82	.998993	.15	.833613	30.97	.166387
55	.834456	30.68	.998984	.13	.835471	30.83	.164529
56	.836297	30.55	.998976	.15	.837321	30.70	.162679
57	.838130	30.43	.998967	.15	.839163	30.58	.160837
58	.839956	30.30	.998958	.13	.840998	30.45	.159002
59	.841774	30.18	.998950	.15	.842825	30.32	.157175
60	8.843585		9.998941		8.844644		11.155356
'	Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.

Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
8.843585	30.03	9.998941	.15	8.844644	30.18	11.155356	60
.845387	29.93	.998932	.15	.846455	30.08	.153545	59
.847183	29.80	.998923	.15	.848260	29.95	.151740	58
.848971	29.67	.998914	.15	.850057	29.82	.149943	57
.850751	29.57	.998905	.15	.851846	29.70	.148154	56
.852525	29.43	.998896	.15	.853628	29.58	.146372	55
.854291	29.30	.998887	.15	.855403	29.47	.144597	54
.856049	29.20	.998878	.15	.857171	29.35	.142829	53
.857801	29.08	.998869	.15	.858932	29.23	.141068	52
.859546	28.95	.998860	.15	.860686	29.12	.139314	51
.861283	28.85	.998851	.17	.862433	29.00	.137567	50
8.863014	28.73	9.998841	.15	8.864173	28.88	11.135827	49
.864738	28.62	.998832	.15	.865906	28.77	.134094	48
.866455	28.50	.998823	.17	.867632	28.65	.132368	47
.868165	28.38	.998813	.15	.869351	28.55	.130649	46
.869868	28.28	.998804	.15	.871064	28.43	.128936	45
.871565	28.17	.998795	.17	.872770	28.32	.127230	44
.873255	28.05	.998785	.15	.874469	28.22	.125531	43
.874938	27.95	.998776	.17	.876162	28.12	.123838	42
.876615	27.83	.998766	.15	.877849	28.00	.122151	41
.878285	27.73	.998757	.17	.879529	27.88	.120471	40
8.879949	27.63	9.998747	.15	8.881202	27.78	11.118798	39
.881607	27.52	.998738	.17	.882869	27.68	.117131	38
.883258	27.42	.998728	.17	.884530	27.58	.115470	37
.884903	27.32	.998718	.17	.886185	27.47	.113815	36
.886542	27.20	.998708	.15	.887833	27.38	.112167	35
.888174	27.12	.998699	.17	.889476	27.27	.110524	34
.889801	27.00	.998689	.17	.891112	27.17	.108888	33
.891421	26.90	.998679	.17	.892742	27.07	.107258	32
.893035	26.80	.998669	.17	.894366	26.97	.105634	31
.894643	26.72	.998659	.17	.895984	26.87	.104016	30
8.896246	26.60	9.998649	.17	8.897596	26.78	11.102404	29
.897842	26.50	.998639	.17	.899203	26.67	.100797	28
.899432	26.42	.998629	.17	.900803	26.58	.099197	27
.901017	26.32	.998619	.17	.902398	26.48	.097602	26
.902596	26.22	.998609	.17	.903987	26.38	.096013	25
.904169	26.12	.998599	.17	.905570	26.28	.094430	24
.905736	26.02	.998589	.18	.907147	26.20	.092853	23
.907297	25.93	.998578	.17	.908719	26.10	.091281	22
.908853	25.85	.998568	.17	.910285	26.02	.089715	21
.910404	25.75	.998558	.17	.911846	25.92	.088154	20
8.911949	25.65	9.998548	.18	8.913401	25.83	11.086599	19
.913488	25.57	.998537	.17	.914951	25.73	.085049	18
.915022	25.47	.998527	.18	.916495	25.63	.083505	17
.916550	25.38	.998516	.17	.918034	25.57	.081966	16
.918073	25.30	.998506	.18	.919568	25.47	.080432	15
.919591	25.20	.998495	.17	.921096	25.38	.078904	14
.921103	25.12	.998485	.18	.922619	25.28	.077381	13
.922610	25.03	.998474	.17	.924136	25.22	.075864	12
.924112	24.95	.998464	.18	.925649	25.12	.074351	11
.925609	24.85	.998453	.18	.927156	25.03	.072844	10
8.927100	24.78	9.998442	.18	8.928658	24.95	11.071342	9
.928587	24.68	.998431	.17	.930155	24.87	.069845	8
.930068	24.60	.998421	.18	.931647	24.78	.068353	7
.931544	24.52	.998410	.18	.933134	24.70	.066866	6
.933015	24.43	.998399	.18	.934616	24.62	.065384	5
.934481	24.35	.998388	.18	.936093	24.53	.063907	4
.935942	24.27	.998377	.18	.937565	24.45	.062435	3
.937398	24.20	.998366	.18	.939032	24.37	.060968	2
.938850	24.10	.998355	.18	.940494	24.30	.059506	1
8.940296		9.998344		8.941952		11.058048	0
Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

'	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	'
0	8.940296	24.03	9.998344	.18	8.941952	24.20	11.058048	60
1	.941738	23.93	.998333	.18	.943404	24.13	.056596	59
2	.943174	23.87	.998322	.18	.944852	24.05	.055148	58
3	.944606	23.80	.998311	.18	.946295	23 98	.053705	57
4	.946034	23.70	.998300	.18	.947734	23.90	.052266	56
5	.947456	23.63	.998289	.20	.949168	23.82	.050832	55
6	.948874	23.55	.998277	.18	.950597	23.73	.049403	54
7	.950287	23.48	.998266	.18	.952021	23.67	.047979	53
8	.951696	23.40	.998255	.20	.953441	23.58	.046559	52
9	.953100	23.32	.998243	.18	.954856	23.52	.045144	51
10	.954499	23.25	.998232	.20	.956267	23.45	.043733	50
11	8.955894	23.17	9.998220	.18	8.957674	23.35	11.042326	49
12	.957284	23.10	.998209	.20	.959075	23.30	.040925	48
13	.958670	23.03	.998197	.18	.960473	23.22	.039527	47
14	.960052	22.95	.998186	.20	.961866	23.15	.038134	46
15	.961429	22.87	.998174	.18	.963255	23.07	.036745	45
16	.962801	22.82	.998163	.20	.964639	23.00	.035361	44
17	.964170	22.73	.998151	.20	.966019	22.92	.033981	43
18	.965534	22.65	.998139	.18	.967394	22.87	.032606	42
19	.966893	22.60	.998128	.20	.968766	22.78	.031234	41
20	.968249	22.52	.998116	.20	.970133	22.72	.029867	40
21	8.969600	22.45	9.998104	.20	8.971496	22.65	11.028504	39
22	.970947	22.37	.998092	.20	.972855	22.57	.027145	38
23	.972289	22.32	.998080	.20	.974209	22.52	.025791	37
24	.973628	22.23	.998068	.20	.975560	22.43	.024440	36
25	.974962	22.18	.998056	.20	.976906	22.37	.023094	35
26	.976293	22.10	.998044	.20	.978248	22.30	.021752	34
27	.977619	22.03	.998032	.20	.979586	22.25	.020414	33
28	.978941	21.97	.998020	.20	.980921	22.17	.019079	32
29	.980259	21.90	.998008	.20	.982251	22.10	.017749	31
30	.981573	21.83	.997996	.20	.983577	22.03	.016423	30
31	8.982883	21.77	9.997984	.20	8.984899	21.97	11.015101	29
32	.984189	21.72	.997972	.22	.986217	21.92	.013783	28
33	.985491	21.63	.997959	.20	.987532	21.83	.012468	27
34	.986789	21.57	.997947	.20	.988842	21.78	.011158	26
35	.988083	21.52	.997935	.22	.990149	21.70	.009851	25
36	.989374	21.43	.997922	.20	.991451	21.65	.008549	24
37	.990660	21.38	.997910	.22	.992750	21.58	.007250	23
38	.991948	21.32	.997897	.20	.994045	21.53	.005955	22
39	.993222	21.25	.997885	.22	.995337	21.45	.004663	21
40	.994497	21.18	.997872	.20	.996624	21.40	.003376	20
41	8.995768	21.13	9.997860	.22	8.997908	21.33	11.002092	19
42	.997036	21.05	.997847	.20	8.999188	21.28	11.000812	18
43	.998299	21.02	.997835	.22	9.000465	21.22	10.999535	17
44	8.999560	20.93	.997822	.22	.001738	21.15	.998262	16
45	9.000816	20.88	.997809	.20	.003007	21.08	.996993	15
46	.002069	20.82	.997797	.22	.004272	21.03	.995728	14
47	.003318	20.75	.997784	.22	.005534	20.97	.994466	13
48	.004563	20.70	.997771	.22	.006792	20.92	.993208	12
49	.005805	20.65	.997758	.22	.008047	20.85	.991953	11
50	.007044	20.57	.997745	.22	.009298	20.80	.990702	10
51	9.008278	20.53	9.997732	.22	9.010546	20.73	10.989454	9
52	.009510	20.45	.997719	.22	.011790	20.68	.988210	8
53	.010737	20.42	.997706	.22	.013031	20.62	.986969	7
54	.011962	20.33	.997693	.22	.014268	20.57	.985732	6
55	.013182	20.30	.997680	.22	.015502	20.50	.984498	5
56	.014400	20.22	.997667	.22	.016732	20.45	.983268	4
57	.015613	20.18	.997654	.22	.017959	20.40	.982041	3
58	.016824	20.12	.997641	.22	.019183	20.33	.980817	2
59	.018031	20.07	.997628	.23	.020403	20.28	.979597	1
60	9.019235		9.997614		9.021620		10.978380	0
'	*Cosine.*	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	'

Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	'
9.019235	20.00	9.997614	.22	9.021620	20.23	10.978380	60
.020435	19.95	.997601	.22	.022834	20.17	.977166	59
.021632	19.88	.997588	.23	.024044	20.12	.975956	58
.022825	19.85	.997574	.22	.025251	20.07	.974749	57
.024016	19.78	.997561	.23	.026455	20.00	.973545	56
.025203	19.72	.997547	.22	.027655	19.95	.972345	55
.026386	19.68	.997534	.23	.028852	19.90	.971148	54
.027567	19.62	.997520	.22	.030046	19.85	.969954	53
.028744	19.57	.997507	.23	.031237	19.80	.968763	52
.029918	19.52	.997493	.22	.032425	19.73	.967575	51
.031089	19.47	.997480	.23	.033609	19.70	.966391	50
9.032257	19.40	9.997466	.23	9.034791	19.63	10.965209	49
.033421	19.35	.997452	.22	.035969	19.58	.964031	48
.034582	19.32	.997439	.23	.037144	19.53	.962856	47
.035741	19.25	.997425	.23	.038316	19.48	.961684	46
.036896	19.20	.997411	.23	.039485	19.43	.960515	45
.038048	19.15	.997397	.23	.040651	19.37	.959349	44
.039197	19.08	.997383	.23	.041813	19.33	.958187	43
.040342	19.05	.997369	.23	.042973	19.28	.957027	42
.041485	19.00	.997355	.23	.044130	19.23	.955870	41
.042625	18.95	.997341	.23	.045284	19.17	.954716	40
9.043762	18.88	9.997327	.23	9.046434	19.13	10.953566	39
.044895	18.85	.997313	.23	.047582	19.08	.952418	38
.046026	18.80	.997299	.23	.048727	19.03	.951273	37
.047154	18.75	.997285	.23	.049869	18.98	.950131	36
.048279	18.68	.997271	.23	.051008	18.93	.948992	35
.049400	18.65	.997257	.25	.052144	18.88	.947856	34
.050519	18.60	.997242	.23	.053277	18.83	.946723	33
.051635	18.57	.997228	.23	.054407	18.80	.945593	32
.052749	18.50	.997214	.25	.055535	18.73	.944465	31
.053859	18.45	.997199	.23	.056659	18.70	.943341	30
9.054966	18.42	9.997185	.25	9.057781	18.65	10.942219	29
.056071	18.35	.997170	.23	.058900	18.60	.941100	28
.057172	18.32	.997156	.25	.060016	18.57	.939984	27
.058271	18.27	.997141	.23	.061130	18.50	.938870	26
.059367	18.22	.997127	.25	.062240	18.47	.937760	25
.060460	18.18	.997112	.23	.063348	18.42	.936652	24
.061551	18.13	.997098	.25	.064453	18.38	.935547	23
.062639	18.08	.997083	.25	.065556	18.32	.934444	22
.063724	18.03	.997068	.25	.066655	18.28	.933345	21
.064806	17.98	.997053	.23	.067752	18.25	.932248	20
9.065885	17.95	9.997039	.25	9.068846	18.20	10.931154	19
.066962	17.90	.997024	.25	.069938	18.15	.930062	18
.068036	17.85	.997009	.25	.071027	18.10	.928973	17
.069107	17.82	.996994	.25	.072113	18.07	.927887	16
.070176	17.77	.996979	.25	.073197	18.02	.926803	15
.071242	17.73	.996964	.25	.074278	17.97	.925722	14
.072306	17.67	.996949	.25	.075356	17.93	.924644	13
.073366	17.63	.996934	.25	.076432	17.88	.923568	12
.074424	17.60	.996919	.25	.077505	17.85	.922495	11
.075480	17.55	.996904	.25	.078576	17.80	.921424	10
9.076533	17.50	9.996889	.25	9.079644	17.77	10.920356	9
.077583	17.47	.996874	.27	.080710	17.72	.919290	8
.078631	17.42	.996858	.25	.081773	17.67	.918227	7
.079676	17.38	.996843	.27	.082833	17.63	.917167	6
.080719	17.33	.996828	.27	.083891	17.60	.916109	5
.081759	17.30	.996812	.25	.084947	17.55	.915053	4
.082797	17.25	.996797	.25	.086000	17.50	.914000	3
.083832	17.20	.996782	.27	.087050	17.47	.912950	2
.084864	17.17	.996766	.25	.088098	17.43	.911902	1
9.085894		9.996751		9.089144		10.910856	0
Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	'

7° TABLE XVIII.—LOGARITHMIC SINES. 172°

′	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
0	9.085894	17.13	9.996751	.27	9.089144	17.38	10.910856	60
1	.086922	17.08	.996735	.25	.090187	17.35	.909813	59
2	.087947	17.05	.996720	.27	.091228	17.30	.908772	58
3	.088970	17.00	.996704	.27	.092266	17.27	.907734	57
4	.089990	16.97	.996688	.25	.093302	17.23	.906698	56
5	.091008	16.93	.996673	.27	.094336	17.18	.905664	55
6	.092024	16.88	.996657	.27	.095367	17.13	.904633	54
7	.093037	16.83	.996641	.27	.096395	17.12	.903605	53
8	.094047	16.82	.996625	.25	.097422	17.07	.902578	52
9	.095056	16.77	.996610	.27	.098446	17.03	.901554	51
10	.096062	16.72	.996594	.27	.099468	16.98	.900532	50
11	9.097065	16.68	9.996578	.27	9.100487	16.95	10.899513	49
12	.098066	16.65	.996562	.27	.101504	16.92	.898496	48
13	.099065	16.62	.996546	.27	.102519	16.88	.897481	47
14	.100062	16.57	.996530	.27	.103532	16.83	.896468	46
15	.101056	16.53	.996514	.27	.104542	16.80	.895458	45
16	.102048	16.48	.996498	.27	.105550	16.77	.894450	44
17	.103037	16.47	.996482	.28	.106556	16.72	.893444	43
18	.104025	16.42	.996465	.27	.107559	16.68	.892441	42
19	.105010	16.37	.996449	.27	.108560	16.65	.891440	41
20	.105992	16.35	.996433	.27	.109559	16.62	.890441	40
21	9.106973	16.30	9.996417	.28	9.110556	16.58	10.889444	39
22	.107951	16.27	.996400	.27	.111551	16.53	.888449	38
23	.108927	16.23	.996384	.27	.112543	16.50	.887457	37
24	.109901	16.20	.996368	.28	.113533	16.47	.886467	36
25	.110873	16.15	.996351	.27	.114521	16.43	.885479	35
26	.111842	16.12	.996335	.28	.115507	16.40	.884493	34
27	.112809	16.08	.996318	.27	.116491	16.35	.883509	33
28	.113774	16.05	.996302	.28	.117472	16.33	.882528	32
29	.114737	16.02	.996285	.27	.118452	16.28	.881548	31
30	.115698	15.97	.996269	.28	.119429	16.25	.880571	30
31	9.116656	15.95	9.996252	.28	9.120404	16.22	10.879596	29
32	.117613	15.90	.996235	.27	.121377	16.18	.878623	28
33	.118567	15.87	.996219	.28	.122348	16.15	.877652	27
34	.119519	15.83	.996202	.28	.123317	16.12	.876683	26
35	.120469	15.80	.996185	.28	.124284	16.08	.875716	25
36	.121417	15.75	.996168	.28	.125249	16.03	.874751	24
37	.122362	15.73	.996151	.28	.126211	16.02	.873789	23
38	.123306	15.70	.996134	.28	.127172	15.97	.872828	22
39	.124248	15.65	.996117	.28	.128130	15.95	.871870	21
40	.125187	15.63	.996100	.28	.129087	15.90	.870913	20
41	9.126125	15.58	9.996083	.28	9.130041	15.88	10.869959	19
42	.127060	15.55	.996066	.28	.130994	15.83	.869006	18
43	.127993	15.53	.996049	.28	.131944	15.82	.868056	17
44	.128925	15.48	.996032	.28	.132893	15.77	.867107	16
45	.129854	15.45	.996015	.28	.133839	15.75	.866161	15
46	.130781	15.42	.995998	.30	.134784	15.70	.865216	14
47	.131706	15.40	.995980	.28	.135726	15.68	.864274	13
48	.132630	15.35	.995963	.28	.136667	15.63	.863333	12
49	.133551	15.32	.995946	.30	.137605	15.62	.862395	11
50	.134470	15.28	.995928	.28	.138542	15.57	.861458	10
51	9.135387	15.27	9.995911	.28	9.139476	15.55	10.860524	9
52	.136303	15.22	.995894	.30	.140409	15.52	.859591	8
53	.137216	15.20	.995876	.28	.141340	15.48	.858660	7
54	.138128	15.15	.995859	.30	.142269	15.45	.857731	6
55	.139037	15.12	.995841	.30	.143196	15.42	.856804	5
56	.139944	15.10	.995823	.28	.144121	15.38	.855879	4
57	.140850	15.07	.995806	.30	.145044	15.37	.854956	3
58	.141754	15.02	.995788	.28	.145966	15.32	.854034	2
59	.142655	15.00	.995771	.30	.146885	15.30	.853115	1
60	9.143555		9.995753		9.147803		10.852197	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

97° 82°

D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
14.97	9.995753	.30	9.147803	15.25	10.852197	60
14.93	.995735	.30	.148718	15.23	.851282	59
14.90	.995717	.30	.149632	15.20	.850368	58
14.88	.995699	.30	.150544	15.17	.849456	57
14.83	.995681	.28	.151454	15.15	.848546	56
14.82	.995664	.30	.152363	15.10	.847637	55
14.78	.995646	.30	.153269	15.08	.846731	54
14.73	.995628	.30	.154174	15.05	.845826	53
14.72	.995610	.32	.155077	15.02	.844923	52
14.70	.995591	.30	.155978	14.98	.844022	51
14.65	.995573	.30	.156877	14.97	.843123	50
14.63	9.995555	.30	9.157775	14.93	10.842225	49
14.58	.995537	.30	.158671	14.90	.841329	48
14.57	.995519	.30	.159565	14.87	.840435	47
14.55	.995501	.32	.160457	14.83	.839543	46
14.50	.995482	.30	.161347	14.82	.838653	45
14.48	.995464	.30	.162236	14.78	.837764	44
14.43	.995446	.32	.163123	14.75	.836877	43
14.43	.995427	.30	.164008	14.73	.835992	42
14.38	.995409	.32	.164892	14.70	.835108	41
14.35	.995390	.30	.165774	14.67	.834226	40
14.33	9.995372	.32	9.166654	14.63	10.833346	39
14.30	.995353	.32	.167532	14.62	.832468	38
14.28	.995334	.30	.168409	14.58	.831591	37
14.23	.995316	.32	.169284	14.55	.830716	36
14.22	.995297	.32	.170157	14.53	.829843	35
14.20	.995278	.30	.171029	14.50	.828971	34
14.15	.995260	.32	.171899	14.47	.828101	33
14.13	.995241	.32	.172767	14.45	.827233	32
14.10	.995222	.32	.173634	14.42	.826366	31
14.08	.995203	.32	.174499	14.38	.825501	30
14.03	9.995184	.32	9.175362	14.37	10.824638	29
14.02	.995165	.32	.176224	14.33	.823776	28
14.00	.995146	.32	.177084	14.30	.822916	27
13.97	.995127	.32	.177942	14.28	.822058	26
13.93	.995108	.32	.178799	14.27	.821201	25
13.90	.995089	.32	.179655	14.22	.820345	24
13.88	.995070	.32	.180508	14.20	.819492	23
13.85	.995051	.32	.181360	14.18	.818640	22
13.83	.995032	.32	.182211	14.18	.817789	21
13.80	.995013	.33	.183059	14.18	.816941	20
13.77	9.994993	.32	9.183907	14.08	10.816093	19
13.75	.994974	.32	.184752	14.08	.815248	18
13.72	.994955	.33	.185597	14.03	.814403	17
13.70	.994935	.32	.186439	14.02	.813561	16
13.67	.994916	.33	.187280	14.00	.812720	15
13.63	.994896	.32	.188120	13.97	.811880	14
13.62	.994877	.33	.188958	13.93	.811042	13
13.58	.994857	.32	.189794	13.92	.810206	12
13.57	.994838	.33	.190629	13.88	.809371	11
13.53	.994818	.33	.191462	13.87	.808538	10
13.52	9.994798	.32	9.192294	13.83	10.807706	9
13.48	.994779	.33	.193124	13.82	.806876	8
13.45	.994759	.33	.193953	13.78	.806047	7
13.43	.994739	.32	.194780	13.77	.805220	6
13.42	.994720	.33	.195606	13.73	.804394	5
13.38	.994700	.33	.196430	13.72	.803570	4
13.35	.994680	.33	.197253	13.68	.802747	3
13.33	.994660	.33	.198074	13.67	.801926	2
13.30	.994640	.33	.198894	13.65	.801106	1
	9.994620		9.199713		10.800287	0
D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
0	9.194332	13.28	9.994620	.33	9.199713	13.60	10.800287	60
1	.195129	13.27	.994600	.33	.200529	13.60	.799471	59
2	.195925	13.23	.994580	.33	.201345	13.57	.798655	58
3	.196719	13.20	.994560	.33	.202159	13.53	.797841	57
4	.197511	13.18	.994540	.35	.202971	13.52	.797029	56
5	.198302	13.15	.994519	.33	.203782	13.50	.796218	55
6	.199091	13.13	.994499	.33	.204592	13.47	.795408	54
7	.199879	13.12	.994479	.33	.205400	13.45	.794600	53
8	.200666	13.08	.994459	.35	.206207	13.43	.793793	52
9	.201451	13.05	.994438	.33	.207013	13.40	.792987	51
10	.202234	13.05	.994418	.33	.207817	13.37	.792183	50
11	9.203017	13.00	9.994398	.35	9.208619	13.35	10.791381	49
12	.203797	13.00	.994377	.33	.209420	13.33	.790580	48
13	.204577	12.95	.994357	.35	.210220	13.30	.789780	47
14	.205354	12.95	.994336	.33	.211018	13.28	.788982	46
15	.206131	12.92	.994316	.35	.211815	13.27	.788185	45
16	.206906	12.88	.994295	.35	.212611	13.23	.787389	44
17	.207679	12.88	.994274	.33	.213405	13.22	.786595	43
18	.208452	12.83	.994254	.35	.214198	13.18	.785802	42
19	.209222	12.83	.994233	.35	.214989	13.18	.785011	41
20	.209992	12.80	.994212	.35	.215780	13.13	.784220	40
21	9.210760	12.77	9.994191	.33	9.216568	13.13	10.783432	39
22	.211526	12.75	.994171	.35	.217356	13.10	.782644	38
23	.212291	12.73	.994150	.35	.218142	13.07	.781858	37
24	.213055	12.72	.994129	.35	.218926	13.07	.781074	36
25	.213818	12.68	.994108	.35	.219710	13.03	.780290	35
26	.214579	12.65	.994087	.35	.220492	13.00	.779508	34
27	.215338	12.65	.994066	.35	.221272	13.00	.778728	33
28	.216097	12.62	.994045	.35	.222052	12.97	.777948	32
29	.216854	12.58	.994024	.35	.222830	12.95	.777170	31
30	.217609	12.57	.994003	.35	.223607	12.92	.776393	30
31	9.218363	12.55	9.993982	.37	9.224382	12.90	10.775618	29
32	.219116	12.53	.993960	.35	.225156	12.88	.774844	28
33	.219868	12.50	.993939	.35	.225929	12.85	.774071	27
34	.220618	12.48	.993918	.35	.226700	12.85	.773300	26
35	.221367	12.47	.993897	.37	.227471	12.80	.772529	25
36	.222115	12.43	.993875	.35	.228239	12.80	.771761	24
37	.222861	12.42	.993854	.37	.229007	12.77	.770993	23
38	.223606	12.38	.993832	.35	.229773	12.77	.770227	22
39	.224349	12.38	.993811	.37	.230539	12.72	.769461	21
40	.225092	12.35	.993789	.35	.231302	12.72	.768698	20
41	9.225833	12.33	9.993768	.37	9.232065	12.68	10.767935	19
42	.226573	12.30	.993746	.35	.232826	12.67	.767174	18
43	.227311	12.28	.993725	.37	.233586	12.65	.766414	17
44	.228048	12.27	.993703	.37	.234345	12.63	.765655	16
45	.228784	12.23	.993681	.35	.235103	12.60	.764897	15
46	.229518	12.23	.993660	.37	.235859	12.58	.764141	14
47	.230252	12.20	.993638	.37	.236614	12.57	.763386	13
48	.230984	12.18	.993616	.37	.237368	12.53	.762632	12
49	.231715	12.15	.993594	.37	.238120	12.53	.761880	11
50	.232444	12.13	.993572	.37	.238872	12.50	.761128	10
51	9.233172	12.12	9.993550	.37	9.239622	12.48	10.760378	9
52	.233899	12.10	.993528	.37	.240371	12.45	.759629	8
53	.234625	12.07	.993506	.37	.241118	12.45	.758882	7
54	.235349	12.07	.993484	.37	.241865	12.42	.758135	6
55	.236073	12.03	.993462	.37	.242610	12.40	.757390	5
56	.236795	12.00	.993440	.37	.243354	12.38	.756646	4
57	.237515	12.00	.993418	.37	.244097	12.37	.755903	3
58	.238235	11.97	.993396	.37	.244839	12.33	.755161	2
59	.238953	11.95	.993374	.38	.245579	12.33	.754421	1
60	9.239670		9.993351		9.246319		10.753681	0
′	*Cosine.*	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
9.239670	11.93	9.993351	.37	9.246319	12.30	10.753681	60
.240386	11.92	.993329	.37	.247057	12.28	.752943	59
.241101	11.88	.993307	.38	.247794	12.27	.752206	58
.241814	11.87	.993284	.37	.248530	12.23	.751470	57
.242526	11.85	.993262	.37	.249264	12.23	.750736	56
.243237	11.83	.993240	.38	.249998	12.20	.750002	55
.243947	11.82	.993217	.37	.250730	12.18	.749270	54
.244656	11.78	.993195	.38	.251461	12.17	.748539	53
.245363	11.77	.993172	.38	.252191	12.15	.747809	52
.246069	11.77	.993149	.37	.252920	12.13	.747080	51
.246775	11.72	.993127	.38	.253648	12.10	.746352	50
9.247478	11.72	9.993104	.38	9.254374	12.10	10.745626	49
.248181	11.70	.993081	.37	.255100	12.07	.744900	48
.248883	11.67	.993059	.38	.255824	12.05	.744176	47
.249583	11.65	.993036	.38	.256547	12.03	.743453	46
.250282	11.63	.993013	.38	.257269	12.02	.742731	45
.250980	11.62	.992990	.38	.257990	12.00	.742010	44
.251677	11.60	.992967	.38	.258710	11.98	.741290	43
.252373	11.57	.992944	.38	.259429	11.95	.740571	42
.253067	11.57	.992921	.38	.260146	11.95	.739854	41
.253761	11.53	.992898	.38	.260863	11.92	.739137	40
9.254453	11.52	9.992875	.38	9.261578	11.90	10.738422	39
.255144	11.50	.992852	.38	.262292	11.88	.737708	38
.255834	11.48	.992829	.38	.263005	11.87	.736995	37
.256523	11.47	.992806	.38	.263717	11.85	.736283	36
.257211	11.45	.992783	.40	.264428	11.83	.735572	35
.257898	11.42	.992759	.38	.265138	11.82	.734862	34
.258583	11.42	.992736	.38	.265847	11.80	.734153	33
.259268	11.38	.992713	.38	.266555	11.77	.733445	32
.259951	11.37	.992690	.40	.267261	11.77	.732739	31
.260633	11.35	.992666	.38	.267967	11.73	.732033	30
9.261314	11.33	9.992643	.40	9.268671	11.73	10.731329	29
.261994	11.32	.992619	.38	.269375	11.70	.730625	28
.262673	11.30	.992596	.40	.270077	11.70	.729923	27
.263351	11.27	.992572	.38	.270779	11.67	.729221	26
.264027	11.27	.992549	.40	.271479	11.65	.728521	25
.264703	11.23	.992525	.40	.272178	11.63	.727822	24
.265377	11.23	.992501	.38	.272876	11.62	.727124	23
.266051	11.20	.992478	.40	.273573	11.60	.726427	22
.266723	11.20	.992454	.40	.274269	11.58	.725731	21
.267395	11.17	.992430	.40	.274964	11.57	.725036	20
9.268065	11.15	9.992406	.40	9.275658	11.55	10.724342	19
.268734	11.13	.992382	.38	.276351	11.53	.723649	18
.269402	11.12	.992359	.40	.277043	11.52	.722957	17
.270069	11.10	.992335	.40	.277734	11.50	.722266	16
.270735	11.08	.992311	.40	.278424	11.48	.721576	15
.271400	11.07	.992287	.40	.279113	11.47	.720887	14
.272064	11.03	.992263	.40	.279801	11.45	.720199	13
.272726	11.03	.992239	.42	.280488	11.43	.719512	12
.273388	11.02	.992214	.40	.281174	11.40	.718826	11
.274049	10 98	.992190	.40	.281858	11.40	.718142	10
9,274708	10.98	9.992166	.40	9.282542	11.38	10.717458	9
.275367	10.97	.992142	.40	.283225	11.37	.716775	8
.276025	10.93	.992118	.42	.283907	11.35	.716093	7
.276681	10.93	.992093	.40	.284588	11.33	.715412	6
.277337	10.90	.992069	.42	.285268	11.32	.714732	5
.277991	10.90	.992044	.40	.285947	11.28	714053	4
.278645	10.87	.992020	.40	.286624	11.28	.713376	3
.279297	10.85	.991996	.42	.287301	11.27	.712699	2
.279948	10.85	.991971	.40	.287977	11.25	.712023	1
9.280599		9.991947		9.288652		10.711348	0
Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	9.280599	10.82	9.991947	.42	9.288652	11.23	10.711348	60
1	.281248	10.82	.991922	.42	289326	11.22	.710674	59
2	.281897	10.78	.991897	.40	.289999	11.20	.710001	58
3	.282544	10.77	.991873	.42	.290671	11.18	.709329	57
4	.283190	10.77	.991848	.42	.291342	11.18	.708658	56
5	.283836	10.73	.991823	.40	.292013	11.15	.707987	55
6	.284480	10.73	.991799	.42	.292682	11.13	.707318	54
7	.285124	10.70	.991774	.42	.293350	11.12	.706650	53
8	.285766	10.70	.991749	.42	.294017	11.12	.705983	52
9	.286408	10.67	.991724	.42	.294684	11.08	.705316	51
10	.287048	10.67	.991699	.42	.295349	11.07	.704651	50
11	9.287688	10.63	9.991674	.42	9.296013	11.07	10.703987	49
12	.288326	10.63	.991649	.42	.296677	11.03	.703323	48
13	.288964	10.60	.991624	.42	.297339	11.03	.702661	47
14	.289600	10.60	.991599	.42	.298001	11.02	.701999	46
15	.290236	10.57	.991574	.42	.298662	11.00	.701338	45
16	.290870	10.57	.991549	.42	.299322	10.97	.700678	44
17	.291504	10.55	.991524	.43	.299980	10.97	.790020	43
18	.292137	10.52	.991498	.42	.300638	10.95	.699362	42
19	.292768	10.52	.991473	.42	.301295	10.93	.698705	41
20	.293399	10.50	.991448	.43	.301951	10.93	.698049	40
21	9.294029	10.48	9.991422	.42	9.302607	10.90	10.697393	39
22	.294658	10.47	.991397	.42	.303261	10.88	.696739	38
23	.295286	10.45	.991372	.43	.303914	10.88	.696086	37
24	.295913	10.43	.991346	.42	.304567	10.85	.695433	36
25	.296539	10.42	.991321	.43	.305218	10.85	.694782	35
23	.297164	10.40	.991295	.42	.305869	10.83	.694131	34
27	.297788	10.40	.991270	.43	.306519	10.82	.693481	33
28	.298412	10.37	.991244	.43	.307168	10.80	.692832	32
29	.299034	10.35	.991218	.42	.307816	10.78	.692184	31
30	.299655	10.35	.991193	.43	.308463	10.77	.691537	30
31	9.300276	10.32	9.991167	.43	9.309109	10.75	10.690891	29
32	.300895	10.32	.991141	.43	.309754	10.75	.690246	28
33	.301514	10.30	.991115	.42	.310399	10.72	.689601	27
34	.302132	10.27	.991090	.43	.311042	10.72	.688958	26
35	.302748	10.27	.991064	.43	.311685	10.70	.688315	25
36	.303364	10.25	.991038	.43	.312327	10.68	.687673	24
37	.303979	10.23	.991012	.43	.312968	10.67	.687032	23
38	.304593	10.23	.990986	.43	.313608	10.65	.686392	22
39	.305207	10.20	.990960	.43	.314247	10.63	.685753	21
40	.305819	10.18	.990934	.43	.314885	10.63	.685115	20
41	9.306430	10.18	9.990908	.43	9.315523	10.60	10.684477	19
42	.307041	10.15	.990882	.45	.316159	10.60	.683841	18
43	.307650	10.15	.990855	.43	.316795	10.58	.683205	17
44	.308259	10.13	.990829	.43	.317430	10.57	.682570	16
45	.308867	10.12	.990803	.43	.318064	10.55	.681936	15
46	.309474	10.10	.990777	.45	.318697	10.55	.681303	14
47	.310080	10.08	.990750	.43	819330	10.52	.680670	13
48	.310685	10.07	.990724	.45	.319961	10.52	.680039	12
49	.311289	10.07	.990697	.43	.320592	10.50	.679408	11
50	.311893	10.03	.990671	.43	.321222	10.48	.678778	10
51	9.312495	10.03	9.990645	.45	9.321851	10.47	10.678149	9
52	.313097	10.02	.990618	.45	.322479	10.45	.677521	8
53	.313698	9.98	.990591	.43	.323106	10.45	.676894	7
54	.314297	10.00	.990565	.45	.323733	10.42	.676267	6
55	.314897	9.97	.990538	.45	.324358	10.42	.675642	5
56	.315495	9.95	.990511	.43	.324983	10.40	.675017	4
57	.316092	9.95	.990485	.43	.325607	10.40	.674393	3
58	.316689	9.92	.990458	.45	.326231	10.37	.673769	2
59	.317284	9.92	.990431	.45	.326853	10.37	.673147	1
60	9.317879		9.990404		9.327475		10.672525	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

'	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	'
0	9.317879	9.90	9.990404	.43	9.327475	10.33	10.672525	60
1	.318473	9.88	.990378	.45	.328095	10.33	.671905	59
2	.319066	9.87	.990351	.45	.328715	10.32	.671285	58
3	.319658	9.85	.990324	.45	.329334	10.32	.670666	57
4	.320249	9.85	.990297	.45	.329953	10.28	.670047	56
5	.320840	9.83	.990270	.45	.330570	10.28	.669430	55
6	.321430	9.82	.990243	.47	.331187	10.27	.668813	54
7	.322019	9.80	.990215	.45	.331803	10.25	.668197	53
8	.322607	9.78	.990188	.45	.332418	10.25	.667582	52
9	.323194	9.77	.990161	.45	.333033	10.22	.666967	51
10	.323780	9.77	.990134	.45	.333646	10.22	.666354	50
11	9.324366	9.73	9.990107	.47	9.334259	10.20	10.665741	49
12	.324950	9.73	.990079	.45	.334871	10.18	.665129	48
13	.325534	9.72	.990052	.45	.335482	10.18	.664518	47
14	.326117	9.72	.990025	.47	.336093	10.15	.663907	46
15	.326700	9.68	.989997	.45	.336702	10.15	.663298	45
16	.327281	9.68	.989970	.47	.337311	10.13	.662689	44
17	.327862	9.67	.989942	.45	.337919	10.13	.662081	43
18	.328442	9.65	.989915	.47	.338527	10.10	.661473	42
19	.329021	9.63	.989887	.45	.339133	10.10	.660867	41
20	.329599	9.62	.989860	.47	.339739	10.08	.660261	40
21	9.330176	9.62	9.989832	.47	9.340344	10.07	10.659656	39
22	.330753	9.60	.989804	.45	.340948	10.07	.659052	38
23	.331329	9.57	.989777	.47	.341552	10.05	.658448	37
24	.331903	9.58	.989749	.47	.342155	10.03	.657845	36
25	.332478	9.55	.989721	.47	.342757	10.02	.657243	35
26	.333051	9.55	.989693	.47	.343358	10.00	.656642	34
27	.333624	9.52	.989665	.47	.343958	10.00	.656042	33
28	.334195	9.53	.989637	.45	.344558	9.98	.655442	32
29	.334767	9.50	.989610	.47	.345157	9.97	.654843	31
30	.335337	9.48	.989582	.48	.345755	9.97	.654245	30
31	9.335906	9.48	9.989553	.47	9.346353	9.93	10.653647	29
32	.336475	9.47	.989525	.47	.346949	9.93	.653051	28
33	.337043	9.45	.989497	.47	.347545	9.93	.652455	27
34	.337610	9.43	.989469	.47	.348141	9.90	.651859	26
35	.338176	9.43	.989441	.47	.348735	9.90	.651265	25
36	.338742	9.42	.989413	.47	.349329	9.88	.650671	24
37	.339307	9.40	.989385	.48	.349922	9.87	.650078	23
38	.339871	9.38	.989356	.47	.350514	9.87	.649486	22
39	.340434	9.37	.989328	.47	.351106	9.85	.648894	21
40	.340996	9.37	.989300	.48	.351697	9.83	.648303	20
41	9.341558	9.35	9.989271	.47	9.352287	9.82	10.647713	19
42	.342119	9.33	.989243	.48	.352876	9.82	.647124	18
43	.342679	9.33	.989214	.47	.353465	9.80	.646535	17
44	.343239	9.30	.989186	.48	.354053	9.78	.645947	16
45	.343797	9.30	.989157	.48	.354640	9.78	.645360	15
46	.344355	9.28	.989128	.47	.355227	9.77	.644773	14
47	.344912	9.28	.989100	.48	.355813	9.75	.644187	13
48	.345469	9.25	.989071	.48	.356398	9.73	.643602	12
49	.346024	9.25	.989042	.47	.356982	9.73	.643018	11
50	.346579	9.25	.989014	.48	.357566	9.72	.642434	10
51	9.347134	9.22	9.988985	.48	9.358149	9.70	10.641851	9
52	.347687	9.22	.988956	.48	.358731	9.70	.641269	8
53	.348240	9.20	.988927	.48	.359313	9.67	.640687	7
54	.348792	9.18	.988898	.48	.359893	9.68	.640107	6
55	.349343	9.17	.988869	.48	.360474	9.65	.639526	5
56	.349893	9.17	.988840	.48	.361053	9.65	.638947	4
57	.350443	9.15	.988811	.48	.361632	9.63	.638368	3
58	.350992	9.13	.988782	.48	.362210	9.62	.637790	2
59	.351540	9.13	.988753	.48	.362787	9.62	.637213	1
60	9.352088		9.988724		9.363364		10.636636	0
'	Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	'

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.
0	9.352088	9.12	9.988724	.48	9.363364	9.60	10.636636
1	.352635	9.10	.988695	.48	.363940	9.58	.636060
2	.353181	9.08	.988666	.50	.364515	9.58	.635485
3	.353726	9.08	.988636	.48	.365090	9.57	.634910
4	.354271	9.07	.988607	.48	.365664	9.55	.634336
5	.354815	9.05	.988578	.50	.366237	9.55	.633763
6	.355358	9.05	.988548	.48	.366810	9.53	.633190
7	.355901	9.03	.988519	.50	.367382	9.52	.632618
8	.356443	9.02	.988489	.48	.367953	9.52	.632047
9	.356984	9.00	.988460	.50	.368524	9.50	.631476
10	.357524	9.00	988430	.48	.369094	9.48	.630906
11	9.358064	8.98	9.988401	.50	9.369663	9.48	10.630337
12	.358603	8.97	.988371	.48	.370232	9.45	.629768
13	.359141	8.95	.988342	.50	.370799	9.47	.629201
14	.359678	8.95	.988312	.50	.371367	9.43	.628633
15	.360215	8.95	.988282	.50	.371933	9.43	.628067
16	.360752	8.92	.988252	.48	.372499	9.42	.627501
17	.361287	8.92	.988223	.50	.373064	9.42	.626936
18	.361822	8.90	.988193	.50	.373629	9.40	.626371
19	.362356	8.88	988163	.50	.374193	9.38	.625807
20	.362889	8.88	988133	.50	.374756	9.38	.625244
21	9.363422	8.87	9.988103	.50	9.375319	9.37	10.624681
22	.363954	8.85	.988073	.50	.375881	9.35	.624119
23	.364485	8.85	.988043	.50	.376442	9.35	.623558
24	.365016	8.83	.988013	.50	.377003	9.33	.622997
25	.365546	8.82	.987983	.50	.377563	9.32	.622437
26	.366075	8.82	987953	.52	.378122	9.32	.621878
27	.366604	8.78	.987922	.50	.378681	9.30	.621319
28	.367131	8.80	.987892	.50	.379239	9.30	.620761
29	.367659	8.77	987862	.50	.379797	9.28	.620203
30	.368185	8.77	.987832	.52	.380354	9.27	.619646
31	9.368711	8.75	9.987801	.50	9.380910	9.27	10.619090
32	.369236	8.75	.987771	.52	.381466	9.23	.618534
33	.369761	8.72	.987740	.50	.382020	9.25	.617980
34	.370285	8.72	.987710	.52	.382575	9.23	.617425
35	.370808	8.70	.987679	.50	.383129	9.22	.616871
36	.371330	8.70	.987649	.52	.383682	9.20	.616318
37	.371852	8.68	.987618	.50	.384234	9.20	.615766
38	.372373	8.68	.987588	.52	.384786	9.18	.615214
39	872894	8.67	.987557	.52	.385337	9.18	.614663
40	.373414	8.65	.987526	.50	.385888	9.17	.614112
41	9.373933	8.65	9.987496	.52	9.386438	9.15	10.613562
42	.374452	8.63	.987465	.52	.386987	9.15	.613013
43	.374970	8.62	.987434	.52	.387536	9.13	.612464
44	.375487	8.60	.987403	.52	.388084	9.12	.611916
45	.376003	8.60	.987372	.52	.388631	9.12	.611369
46	.376519	8.60	.987341	.52	.389178	9.10	.610822
47	.377035	8.57	.987310	.52	.389724	9.10	.610276
48	.377549	8.57	.987279	.52	.390270	9.08	.609730
49	.378063	8.57	.987248	.52	.390815	9.08	.609185
50	.378577	8.53	.987217	.52	.391360	9.05	.608640
51	9.379089	8.53	9.987186	.52	9.391903	9.07	10.608097
52	.379601	8.53	.987155	.52	.392447	9.03	.607553
53	.380113	8.52	.987124	.53	.392989	9.03	.607011
54	.380624	8.50	.987092	.52	.393531	9.03	.60646
55	.381134	8.48	.987061	.52	.394073	9.02	.6059
56	.381643	8.48	.987030	.53	.394614	9.00	.6053
57	882152	8.48	.986998	.52	.395154	9.00	.6048
58	.382661	8.45	.986967	.52	.395694	8.98	.6043
59	.383168	8.45	.986936	.53	.396233	8.97	.603
60	9.383675		9.986904		9.396771		10.60
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tan

′	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
0	9.383675	8.45	9.986904	.52	9.396771	8.97	10.603229	60
1	.384182	8.42	.986873	.53	.397309	8.95	.602691	59
2	.384687	8.42	.986841	.53	.397846	8.95	.602154	58
3	.385192	8.42	.986809	.52	.398383	8.93	.601617	57
4	.385697	8.40	.986778	.53	.398919	8.93	.601081	56
5	.386201	8.38	.986746	.53	.399455	8.92	.600545	55
6	.386704	8.38	.986714	.52	.399990	8.90	.600010	54
7	.387207	8.37	.986683	.53	.400524	8.90	.599476	53
8	.387709	8.35	.986651	.53	.401058	8.88	.598942	52
9	.388210	8.35	.986619	.53	.401591	8.88	.598409	51
10	.388711	8.33	.986587	.53	.402124	8.87	.597876	50
11	9.389211	8.33	9.986555	.53	9.402656	8.85	10.597344	49
12	.389711	8.32	.986523	.53	.403187	8.85	.596813	48
13	.390210	8.30	.986491	.53	.403718	8.85	.596282	47
14	.390708	8.30	.986459	.53	.404249	8.82	.595751	46
15	.391206	8.28	.986427	.53	.404778	8.83	.595222	45
16	.391703	8.27	.986395	.53	.405308	8.80	.594692	44
17	.392199	8.27	.986363	.53	.405836	8.80	.594164	43
18	.392695	8.27	.986331	.53	.406364	8.80	.593636	42
19	.393191	8.23	.986299	.55	.406892	8.78	.593108	41
20	.393685	8.23	.986266	.53	.407419	8.77	.592581	40
21	9.394179	8.23	9.986234	.53	9.407945	8.77	10.592055	39
22	.394673	8.22	.986202	.55	.408471	8.75	.591529	38
23	.395166	8.20	.986169	.53	.408996	8.75	.591004	37
24	.395658	8.20	.986137	.55	.409521	8.73	.590479	36
25	.396150	8.18	.986104	.53	.410045	8.73	.589955	35
26	.396641	8.18	.986072	.55	.410569	8.72	.589431	34
27	.397132	8.15	.986039	.53	.411092	8.72	.588908	33
28	.397621	8.17	.986007	.55	.411615	8.70	.588385	32
29	.398111	8.15	.985974	.53	.412137	8.68	.587863	31
30	.398600	8.13	985942	.55	412658	8.68	.587342	30
31	9.399088	8.12	9.985909	.55	9.413179	8.67	10.586821	29
32	.399575	8.12	.985876	.55	.413699	8.67	.586301	28
33	.400062	8.12	.985843	.53	.414219	8.65	.585781	27
34	.400549	8.10	.985811	.55	.414738	8.65	.585262	26
35	.401035	8.08	.985778	.55	.415257	8.63	.584743	25
36	.401520	8.08	.985745	.55	.415775	8.63	.584225	24
37	.402005	8.07	.985712	.55	.416293	8.62	.583707	23
38	.402489	8.05	.985679	.55	.416810	8.60	.583190	22
39	.402972	8.05	.985646	.55	.417326	8.60	.582674	21
40	.403455	8.05	.985613	.55	.417842	8.60	.582158	20
41	9.403938	8.03	9.985580	.55	9.418358	8.58	10.581642	19
42	.404420	8.02	.985547	.55	.418873	8.57	.581127	18
43	.404901	8.02	.985514	.57	.419387	8.57	.580613	17
44	.405382	8.00	.985480	.55	.419901	8.57	.580099	16
45	.405862	7.98	.985447	.55	.420415	8.55	.579585	15
46	.406341	7.98	.985414	.55	.420927	8.55	.579073	14
47	.406820	7.98	.985381	.57	.421440	8.53	.578560	13
48	.407299	7.97	.985347	.55	.421952	8.52	.578048	12
49	.407777	7.95	.985314	.57	.422463	8.52	.577537	11
50	.408254	7.95	.985280	.55	.422974	8.50	.577026	10
51	9.408731	7.93	9.985247	.57	9.423484	8.48	10.576516	9
52	.409207	7.93	.985213	.55	.423993	8.50	.576007	8
53	.409682	7.92	.985180	.57	.424503	8.47	.575497	7
54	.410157	7.92	.985146	.55	.425011	8.47	.574989	6
55	.410632	7.90	.985113	.57	.425519	8.47	.574481	5
56	.411106	7.88	.985079	.57	.426027	8.45	.573973	4
57	.411579	7.88	.985045	.57	.426534	8.45	.573466	3
58	.412052	7.87	.985011	.55	.427041	8.43	.572959	2
59	.412524	7.87	.984978	.57	.427547	8.42	.572453	1
60	9.412996		9.984944		9.428052		10.571948	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1"	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

TABLE XVIII.—LOGARITHMIC SINES.

′	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.
0	9.412996	7.85	9.984944	.57	9.428052	8.43	10.571948
1	.413467	7.85	.984910	.57	.428558	8.40	.571442
2	.413938	7.83	.984876	.57	.429062	8.40	.570938
3	.414408	7.83	.984842	.57	.429566	8.40	.570434
4	.414878	7.82	.984808	.57	.430070	8.38	.569930
5	.415347	7.80	.984774	.57	.430573	8.37	.569427
6	.415815	7.80	.984740	.57	.431075	8.37	.568925
7	.416283	7.80	.984706	.57	.431577	8.37	.568423
8	.416751	7.77	.984672	.57	.432079	8.35	.567921
9	.417217	7.78	.984638	.58	432580	8.33	.567420
10	.417684	7.77	.984603	.57	.433080	8.33	.566920
11	9.418150	7.75	9.984569	.57	9.433580	8.33	10.566420
12	.418615	7.73	.984535	.58	.434080	8.32	.565920
13	.419079	7.75	.984500	.57	.434579	8.32	.565421
14	.419544	7.72	.984466	.57	.435078	8.30	.564922
15	.420007	7.72	.984432	.58	.435576	8.28	.564424
16	.420470	7.72	.984397	.57	.436073	8.28	.563927
17	.420933	7.70	.984363	.58	.436570	8.28	.563430
18	.421395	7.70	.984328	.57	.437067	8.27	.562933
19	.421857	7.68	.984294	.58	.437563	8.27	.562437
20	.422318	7.67	.984259	.58	.438059	8.25	.561941
21	9.422778	7.67	9.984224	.57	9.438554	8.23	10.561446
22	.423238	7.65	.984190	.58	.439048	8.25	.560952
23	.423697	7.65	.984155	.58	.439543	8.22	.560457
24	.424156	7.65	.984120	.58	.440036	8.22	.559964
25	.424615	7.63	.984085	.58	.440529	8.22	.559471
26	.425073	7.62	.984050	.58	.441022	8.20	.558978
27	.425530	7.62	.984015	.57	.441514	8.20	.558486
28	425987	7.60	.983981	.58	.442006	8.18	.557994
29	.426443	7.60	.983946	.58	.442497	8.18	.557503
30	.426899	7.58	.983911	.60	.442988	8.18	.557012
31	9.427354	7.58	9.983875	.58	9.443479	8.15	10.556521
32	.427809	7.57	.983840	.58	.443968	8.17	.556032
33	.428263	7.57	.983805	.58	.444458	8.15	.555542
34	.428717	7.55	.983770	.58	.444947	8.13	.555053
35	.429170	7.55	.983735	.58	.445435	8.13	.554565
36	.429623	7.53	.983700	.60	.445923	8.13	.554077
37	.430075	7.53	.983664	.58	.446411	8.12	.553589
38	.430527	7.52	.983629	.58	.446898	8.10	.553102
39	.430978	7.52	.983594	.60	.447384	8.10	.552616
40	.431429	7.50	.983558	.58	.447870	8.10	.552130
41	9.431879	7.50	9.983523	.60	9.448356	8.08	10.551644
42	.432329	7.48	.983487	.58	.448841	8.08	.551159
43	.432778	7.47	.983452	.60	.449326	8.07	.550674
44	.433226	7.48	.983416	.58	.449810	8.07	.550190
45	.433675	7.45	.983381	.60	.450294	8.05	.549706
46	.434122	7.45	.983345	.60	.450777	8.05	.549223
47	.434569	7.45	.983309	.60	.451260	8.05	.548740
48	.435016	7.43	983273	.58	.451743	8.03	.548257
49	.435462	7.43	.983238	.60	.452225	8.02	.547775
50	.435908	7.42	.983202	.60	.452706	8.02	.547294
51	9.436353	7.42	9.983166	.60	9.453187	8.02	10.546813
52	.436798	7.40	.983130	.60	.453668	8.00	.546332
53	.437242	7.40	.983094	.60	.454148	8.00	.545852
54	.437686	7.38	.983058	.60	.454628	7.98	.545372
55	.438129	7.38	.983022	.60	.455107	7.98	.544893
56	.438572	7.37	.982986	.60	.455586	7.97	.544414
57	.439014	7.37	.982950	.60	.456064	7.97	.543936
58	.439456	7.35	.982914	.60	.456542	7.95	.543458
59	.439897	7.35	.982878	.60	.457019	7.95	.542981
60	9.440338		9.982842		9.457496		10.542504
′	*Cosine.*	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	9.440338	7.33	9.982842	.62	9.457496	7.95	10.542504	60
1	.440778	7.33	.982805	.60	.457973	7.93	.542027	59
2	.441218	7.33	.982769	.60	.458449	7.93	.541551	58
3	.441658	7.30	.982733	.62	.458925	7.92	.541075	57
4	.442096	7.32	.982696	.60	.459400	7.92	.540600	56
5	.442535	7.30	.982660	.60	.459875	7.90	.540125	55
6	.442973	7.28	.982624	.62	.460349	7.90	.539651	54
7	.443410	7.28	.982587	.60	.460823	7.90	.539177	53
8	.443847	7.28	.982551	.62	.461297	7.88	.538703	52
9	.444284	7.27	.982514	.62	.461770	7.87	.538230	51
10	.444720	7.25	.982477	.60	.462242	7.88	.537758	50
11	9.445155	7.25	9.982441	.62	9.462715	7.85	10.537285	49
12	.445590	7.25	.982404	.62	.463186	7.87	.536814	48
13	.446025	7.23	.982367	.60	.463658	7.83	.536342	47
14	.446459	7.23	.982331	.62	.464128	7.85	.535872	46
15	.446893	7.22	.982294	.62	.464599	7.83	.535401	45
16	.447326	7.22	.982257	.62	.465069	7.83	.534931	44
17	.447759	7.20	.982220	.62	.465539	7.82	.534461	43
18	.448191	7.20	.982183	.62	.466008	7.82	.533992	42
19	.448623	7.18	.982146	.62	.466477	7.80	.533523	41
20	.449054	7.18	.982109	.62	.466945	7.80	.533055	40
21	9.449485	7.17	9.982072	.62	9.467413	7.78	10.532587	39
22	.449915	7.17	.982035	.62	.467880	7.78	.532120	38
23	.450345	7.17	.981998	.62	.468347	7.78	.531653	37
24	.450775	7.15	.981961	.62	.468814	7.77	.531186	36
25	.451204	7.13	.981924	.63	.469280	7.77	.530720	35
26	.451632	7.13	.981886	.62	.469746	7.75	.530254	34
27	.452060	7.13	.981849	.62	.470211	7.75	529789	33
28	.452488	7.12	.981812	.63	.470676	7.75	.529324	32
29	.452915	7.12	.981774	.62	.471141	7.73	528859	31
30	.453342	7.10	.981737	.62	.471605	7.73	.528395	30
31	9.453768	7.10	9.981700	.63	9.472069	7.72	10.527931	29
32	.454194	7.08	.981662	.62	.472532	7.72	.527468	28
33	.454619	7.08	.981625	.63	.472995	7.70	.527005	27
34	.455044	7.08	.981587	.63	.473457	7.70	.526543	26
35	.455469	7.07	.981549	.62	.473919	7.70	.526081	25
36	.455893	7.05	.981512	.63	.474381	7.68	.525619	24
37	.456316	7.05	.981474	.63	.474842	7.68	.525158	23
38	.456739	7.05	.981436	.62	.475303	7.67	.524697	22
39	.457162	7.03	.981399	.63	.475763	7.67	.524237	21
40	.457584	7.03	.981361	.63	.476223	7.67	.523777	20
41	9.458006	7.02	9.981323	.63	9.476683	7.65	10.523317	19
42	.458427	7.02	.981285	.63	.477142	7.65	.522858	18
43	.458848	7.00	.981247	.63	.477601	7.63	.522399	17
44	.459268	7.00	.981209	.63	.478059	7.63	.521941	16
45	.459688	7.00	.981171	.63	.478517	7.63	.521483	15
46	.460108	6.98	.981133	.63	.478975	7.62	.521025	14
47	.460527	6.98	.981095	.63	.479432	7.62	.520568	13
48	.460946	6.97	.981057	.63	.479889	7.60	.520111	12
49	.461364	6.97	.981019	.63	.480345	7.60	.519655	11
50	.461782	6.95	.980981	.65	.480801	7.60	.519199	10
51	9.462199	6.95	9.980942	.63	9.481257	7.58	10.518743	9
52	.462616	6.93	.980904	.63	.481712	7.58	.518288	8
53	.463032	6.93	.980866	.65	.482167	7.57	.517833	7
54	.463448	6.93	.980827	.63	.482621	7.57	.517379	6
55	.463864	6.92	.980789	.65	.483075	7.57	.516925	5
56	.464279	6.92	.980750	.63	.483529	7.55	.516471	4
57	.464694	6.90	.980712	.65	.483982	7.55	.516018	3
58	.465108	6.90	.980673	.63	.484435	7.53	.515565	2
59	.465522	6.88	.980635	.65	.484887	7.53	.515113	1
60	9.465935		9.980596		9.485339		10.514661	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

17°

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.
0	9.465935	6.88	9.980596	.63	9.485339	7.53	10.514661
1	.466348	6.88	.980558	.65	.485791	7.52	.514209
2	.466761	6.87	.980519	.65	.486242	7.52	.513758
3	.467173	6.87	.980480	.63	.486693	7.50	.513307
4	.467585	6.85	.980442	.65	.487143	7.50	.512857
5	.467996	6.85	.980403	.65	.487593	7.50	.512407
6	.468407	6.83	.980364	.65	.488043	7.48	.511957
7	.468817	6.83	.980325	.65	.488492	7.48	.511508
8	.469227	6.83	.980286	.65	.488941	7.48	.511059
9	.469637	6.82	.980247	.65	.489390	7.47	.510610
10	.470046	6.82	.980208	.65	.489838	7.47	.510162
11	9.470455	6.80	9.980169	.65	9.490286	7.45	10.509714
12	.470863	6.80	.980130	.65	.490733	7.45	.509267
13	.471271	6.80	.980091	.65	.491180	7.45	.508820
14	.471679	6.78	.980052	.67	.491627	7.43	.508373
15	.472086	6.77	.980012	.65	.492073	7.43	.507927
16	.472492	6.77	.979973	.65	.492519	7.43	.507481
17	.472898	6.77	.979934	.65	.492965	7.42	.507035
18	.473304	6.77	.979895	.67	.493410	7.40	.506590
19	.473710	6.75	.979855	.65	.493854	7.42	.506146
20	.474115	6.73	.979816	.67	.494299	7.40	.505701
21	9.474519	6.73	9.979776	.65	9.494743	7.38	10.505257
22	.474923	6.73	.979737	.67	.495186	7.40	.504814
23	.475327	6.72	.979697	.65	.495630	7.38	.504370
24	.475730	6.72	.979658	.67	.496073	7.37	.503927
25	.476133	6.72	.979618	.65	.496515	7.37	.503485
26	.476536	6.70	.979579	.67	.496957	7.37	.503043
27	.476938	6.70	.979539	.67	.497399	7.37	.502601
28	.477340	6.68	.979499	.67	.497841	7.35	.502159
29	.477741	6.68	.979459	.65	.498282	7.33	.501718
30	.478142	6.67	.979420	.67	.498722	7.35	.501278
31	9.478542	6.67	9.979380	.67	9.499163	7.33	10.500837
32	.478942	6.67	.979340	.67	.499603	7.32	.500397
33	.479342	6.65	.979300	.67	.500042	7.32	.499958
34	.479741	6.65	.979260	.67	.500481	7.32	.499519
35	.480140	6.65	.979220	.67	.500920	7.32	.499080
36	.480539	6.63	.979180	.67	.501359	7.30	.498641
37	.480937	6.62	.979140	.67	.501797	7.30	.498203
38	.481334	6.62	.979100	.68	.502235	7.28	.497765
39	.481731	6.62	.979059	.67	.502672	7.28	.497328
40	.482128	6.62	.979019	.67	.503109	7.28	.496891
41	9.482525	6.60	9.978979	.67	9.503546	7.27	10.496454
42	.482921	6.58	.978939	.68	.503982	7.27	.496018
43	.483316	6.60	.978898	.67	.504418	7.27	.495582
44	.483712	6.58	.978858	.68	.504854	7.25	.495146
45	.484107	6.57	.978817	.67	.505289	7.25	.494711
46	.484501	6.57	.978777	.67	.505724	7.25	.494276
47	.484895	6.57	.978737	.68	.506159	7.23	.493841
48	.485289	6.55	.978696	.68	.506593	7.23	.493407
49	.485682	6.55	.978655	.67	.507027	7.23	.492973
50	.486075	6.53	.978615	.68	.507460	7 22	.492540
51	9.486467	6.55	9.978574	.68	9.507893	7.22	10.492107
52	.486860	6.52	.978533	.67	.508326	7.22	.491674
53	.487251	6.53	.978493	.68	.508759	7.20	.491241
54	.487643	6.52	.978452	.68	.509191	7.18	.490809
55	.488034	6.50	.978411	.68	.509622	7.20	.490378
56	.488424	6.50	.978370	.68	.510054	7.18	.489946
57	.488814	6.50	.978329	.68	.510485	7.18	.489515
58	.489204	6.48	.978288	.68	.510916	7.17	.489084
59	.489593	6.48	.978247	.68	.511346	7.17	.488654
60	9.489982		9.978206		9.511776		10.488224
′	Cosine.	D 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.

107°

	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
0	9.489982	6.48	9.978206	.38	9.511776	7.17	10.488224	60
1	.490371	6.47	.978165	.68	.512206	7.15	.487794	59
2	.490759	6.47	.978124	.68	.512635	7.15	.487365	58
3	.491147	6.47	.978083	.68	.513064	7.15	.486936	57
4	.491535	6.45	.978042	.68	.513493	7.13	.486507	56
5	.491922	6.43	.978001	.70	.513921	7.13	.486079	55
6	.492308	6.45	.977959	.68	.514349	7.13	.485651	54
7	.492695	6.43	.977918	.68	.514777	7.12	.485223	53
8	.493081	6.42	.977877	.70	.515204	7.12	.484796	52
9	.493466	6.42	.977835	.68	.515631	7.10	.484369	51
10	.493851	6.42	.977794	.70	.516057	7.12	.483943	50
11	9.494236	6.42	9.977752	.68	9.516484	7.10	10.483516	49
12	.494621	6.40	.977711	.70	.516910	7.08	.483090	48
13	.495005	6.38	.977669	.68	.517335	7.10	.482665	47
14	.495388	6.40	.977628	.70	.517761	7.08	.482239	46
15	.495772	6.37	.977586	.70	.518186	7.07	.481814	45
16	.496154	6.38	.977544	.68	.518610	7.07	.481390	44
17	.496537	6.37	.977503	.70	.519034	7.07	.480966	43
18	.496919	6.37	.977461	.70	.519458	7.07	.480542	42
19	.497301	6.35	.977419	.70	.519882	7.05	.480118	41
20	.497682	6.35	.977377	.70	.520305	7.05	.479695	40
21	9.498064	6.33	9.977335	.70	9.520728	7.05	10.479272	39
22	.498444	6.35	.977293	.70	.521151	7.03	.478849	38
23	.498825	6.32	.977251	.70	.521573	7.03	.478427	37
24	.499204	6.33	.977209	.70	.521995	7.03	.478005	36
25	.499584	6.32	.977167	.70	.522417	7.02	.477583	35
26	.499963	6.32	.977125	.70	.522838	7.02	.477162	34
27	.500342	6.32	.977083	.70	.523259	7.02	.476741	33
28	.500721	6.30	.977041	.70	.523680	7.00	.476320	32
29	.501099	6.28	.976999	.70	.524100	7.00	.475900	31
30	.501476	6.30	.976957	.72	.524520	7.00	.475480	30
31	9.501854	6.28	9.976914	.70	9.524940	6.98	10.475060	29
32	.502231	6.27	.976872	.70	.525359	6.98	.474641	28
33	.502607	6.28	.976830	.72	.525778	6.98	.474222	27
34	.502984	6.27	.976787	.70	.526197	6.97	.473803	26
35	.503360	6.25	.976745	.72	.526615	6.97	.473385	25
36	.503735	6.25	.976702	.70	.527033	6.97	.472967	24
37	.504110	6.25	.976660	.72	.527451	6.95	.472549	23
38	.504485	6.25	.976617	.72	.527868	6.95	.472132	22
39	.504860	6.23	.976574	.70	.528285	6.95	.471715	21
40	.505234	6.23	.976532	.72	.528702	6.95	.471298	20
41	9.505608	6.22	9.976489	.72	9.529119	6.93	10.470881	19
42	.505981	6.22	.976446	.70	.529535	6.93	.470465	18
43	.506354	6.22	.976404	.72	.529951	6.92	.470049	17
44	.506727	6.20	.976361	.72	.530366	6.92	.469634	16
45	.507099	6.20	.976318	.72	.530781	6.92	.469219	15
46	.507471	6.20	.976275	.72	.531196	6.92	.468804	14
47	.507843	6.18	.976232	.72	.531611	6.90	.468389	13
48	.508214	6.18	.976189	.72	.532025	6.90	.467975	12
49	.508585	6.18	.976146	.72	.532439	6.90	.467561	11
50	.508956	6.17	.976103	.72	.532853	6.88	.467147	10
51	9.509326	6.17	9.976060	.72	9.533266	6.88	10.466734	9
52	.509696	6.15	.976017	.72	.533679	6.88	.466321	8
53	.510065	6.15	.975974	.73	.534092	6.87	.465908	7
54	.510434	6.15	.975930	.72	.534504	6.87	.465496	6
55	.510803	6.15	.975887	.72	.534916	6.87	.465084	5
56	.511172	6.13	.975844	.73	.535328	6.85	.464672	4
57	.511540	6.12	.975800	.72	.535739	6.85	.464261	3
58	.511907	6.13	.975757	.72	.536150	6.85	.463850	2
59	.512275	6.12	.975714	.73	.536561	6.85	.463439	1
60	9.512642		9.975670		9.536972		10.463028	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

17°

TABLE XVIII.—LOGARITHMIC SINES.

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.
0	9.465935	6.88	9.980596	.63	9.485339	7.53	10.514661
1	.466348	6.88	.980558	.65	.485791	7.52	.514209
2	.466761	6.87	.980519	.65	.486242	7.52	.513758
3	.467173	6.87	.980480	.63	.486693	7.50	.513307
4	.467585	6.85	.980442	.65	.487143	7.50	.512857
5	.467996	6.85	.980403	.65	.487593	7.50	.512407
6	.468407	6.83	.980364	.65	.488043	7.48	.511957
7	.468817	6.83	.980325	.65	.488492	7.48	.511508
8	.469227	6.83	.980286	.65	.488941	7.48	.511059
9	.469637	6.82	.980247	.65	.489390	7.47	.510610
10	.470046	6.82	.980208	.65	.489838	7.47	.510162
11	9.470455	6.80	9.980169	.65	9.490286	7.45	10.509714
12	.470863	6.80	.980130	.65	.490733	7.45	.509267
13	.471271	6.80	.980091	.65	.491180	7.45	.508820
14	.471679	6.78	.980052	.67	.491627	7.43	.508373
15	.472086	6.77	.980012	.65	.492073	7.43	.507927
16	.472492	6.77	.979973	.65	.492519	7.43	.507481
17	.472898	6.77	.979934	.65	.492965	7.42	.507035
18	.473304	6.77	.979895	.67	.493410	7.40	.506590
19	.473710	6.75	.979855	.65	.493854	7.42	.506146
20	.474115	6.73	.979816	.67	.494299	7.40	.505701
21	9.474519	6.73	9.979776	.65	9.494743	7.38	10.505257
22	.474923	6.73	.979737	.67	.495186	7.40	.504814
23	.475327	6.72	.979697	.65	.495630	7.38	.504370
24	.475730	6.72	.979658	.67	.496073	7.37	.503927
25	.476133	6.72	.979618	.65	.496515	7.37	.503485
26	.476536	6.70	.979579	.67	.496957	7.37	.503043
27	.476938	6.70	.979539	.67	.497399	7.37	.502601
28	.477340	6.68	.979499	.67	.497841	7.35	.502159
29	.477741	6.68	.979459	.65	.498282	7.33	.501718
30	.478142	6.67	.979420	.67	.498722	7.35	.501278
31	9.478542	6.67	9.979380	.67	9.499163	7.33	10.500837
32	.478942	6.67	.979340	.67	.499603	7.32	.500397
33	.479342	6.65	.979300	.67	.500042	7.32	.499958
34	.479741	6.65	.979260	.67	.500481	7.32	.499519
35	.480140	6.65	.979220	.67	.500920	7.32	.499080
36	.480539	6.63	.979180	.67	.501359	7.30	.498641
37	.480937	6.62	.979140	.67	.501797	7.30	.498203
38	.481334	6.62	.979100	.68	.502235	7.28	.497765
39	.481731	6.62	.979059	.67	.502672	7.28	.497328
40	.482128	6.62	.979019	.67	.503109	7.28	.496891
41	9.482525	6.60	9.978979	.67	9.503546	7.27	10.496454
42	.482921	6.58	.978939	.68	.503982	7.27	.496018
43	.483316	6.60	.978898	.67	.504418	7.27	.495582
44	.483712	6.58	.978858	.68	.504854	7.25	.495146
45	.484107	6.57	.978817	.67	.505289	7.25	.494711
46	.484501	6.57	.978777	.67	.505724	7.25	.494276
47	.484895	6.57	.978737	.68	.506159	7.23	.493841
48	.485289	6.55	.978696	.68	.506593	7.23	.493407
49	.485682	6.55	.978655	.67	.507027	7.23	.492973
50	.486075	6.53	.978615	.68	.507460	7.22	.492540
51	9.486467	6.55	9.978574	.68	9.507893	7.22	10.492107
52	.486860	6.52	.978533	.67	.508326	7.22	.491674
53	.487251	6.53	.978493	.68	.508759	7.20	.491241
54	.487643	6.52	.978452	.68	.509191	7.18	.490809
55	.488034	6.50	.978411	.68	.509622	7.20	.490378
56	.488424	6.50	.978370	.68	.510054	7.18	.489946
57	.488814	6.50	.978329	.68	.510485	7.18	.489515
58	.489204	6.48	.978288	.68	.510916	7.17	.489084
59	.489593	6.48	.978247	.68	.511346	7.17	.488654
60	9.489982		9.978206		9.511776		10.488224
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.

107°

ne.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
9982	6.48	9.978206	.38	9.511776	7.17	10.488224	60
90371	6.47	.978165	.68	.512206	7.15	.487794	59
90759	6.47	.978124	.68	.512635	7.15	.487365	58
91147	6.47	.978083	.68	.513064	7.15	.486936	57
91535	6.45	.978042	.68	.513493	7.13	.486507	56
91922	6.43	.978001	.70	.513921	7.13	.486079	55
92308	6.45	.977959	.68	.514349	7.13	.485651	54
92695	6.43	.977918	.68	.514777	7.12	.485223	53
93081	6.42	.977877	.70	.515204	7.12	.484796	52
93466	6.42	.977835	.68	.515631	7.10	.484369	51
93851	6.42	.977794	.70	.516057	7.12	.483943	50
94236	6.42	9.977752	.68	9.516484	7.10	10.483516	49
94621	6.40	.977711	.70	.516910	7.08	.483090	48
95005	6.38	.977669	.68	.517335	7.10	.482665	47
95388	6.40	.977628	.70	.517761	7.08	.482239	46
95772	6.37	.977586	.70	.518186	7.07	.481814	45
96154	6.38	.977544	.68	.518610	7.07	.481390	44
96537	6.37	.977503	.70	.519034	7.07	.480966	43
96919	6.37	.977461	.70	.519458	7.07	.480542	42
97301	6.35	.977419	.70	.519882	7.05	.480118	41
97682	6.35	.977377	.70	.520305	7.05	.479695	40
98064	6.33	9.977335	.70	9.520728	7.05	10.479272	39
98444	6.35	.977293	.70	.521151	7.03	.478849	38
98825	6.32	.977251	.70	.521573	7.03	.478427	37
99204	6.33	.977209	.70	.521995	7.03	.478005	36
99584	6.32	.977167	.70	.522417	7.02	.477583	35
99963	6.32	.977125	.70	.522838	7.02	.477162	34
00342	6.32	.977083	.70	.523259	7.02	.476741	33
00721	6.30	.977041	.70	.523680	7.00	.476320	32
01099	6.28	.976999	.70	.524100	7.00	.475900	31
01476	6.30	.976957	.72	.524520	7.00	.475480	30
01854	6.28	9.976914	.70	9.524940	6.98	10.475060	29
02231	6.27	.976872	.70	.525359	6.98	.474641	28
02607	6.28	.976830	.72	.525778	6.98	.474222	27
02984	6.27	.976787	.70	.526197	6.97	.473803	26
03360	6.25	.976745	.72	.526615	6.97	.473385	25
03735	6.25	.976702	.70	.527033	6.97	.472967	24
04110	6.25	.976660	.72	.527451	6.95	.472549	23
04485	6.25	.976617	.72	.527868	6.95	.472132	22
04860	6.23	.976574	.70	.528285	6.95	.471715	21
05234	6.23	.976532	.72	.528702	6.95	.471298	20
05608	6.22	9.976489	.72	9.529119	6.93	10.470881	19
05981	6.22	.976446	.70	.529535	6.93	.470465	18
06354	6.22	.976404	.72	.529951	6.92	.470049	17
06727	6.20	.976361	.72	.530366	6.92	.469634	16
07099	6.20	.976318	.72	.530781	6.92	.469219	15
07471	6.20	.976275	.72	.531196	6.92	.468804	14
07843	6.18	.976232	.72	.531611	6.90	.468389	13
08214	6.18	.976189	.72	.532025	6.90	.467975	12
08585	6.18	.976146	.72	.532439	6.90	.467561	11
08956	6.17	.976103	.72	.532853	6.88	.467147	10
09326	6.17	9.976060	.72	9.533266	6.88	10.466734	9
09696	6.15	.976017	.72	.533679	6.88	.466321	8
10065	6.15	.975974	.73	.534092	6.87	.465908	7
10434	6.15	.975930	.72	.534504	6.87	.465496	6
10803	6.15	.975887	.72	.534916	6.87	.465084	5
11172	6.13	.975844	.73	.535328	6.85	.464672	4
11540	6.12	.975800	.72	.535739	6.85	.464261	3
11907	6.13	.975757	.72	.536150	6.85	.463850	2
12275	6.12	.975714	.73	.536561	6.85	.463439	1
12642		9.975670		9.536972		10.463028	0
sine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

'	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.
0	9.512642	6.12	9.975670	.72	9.536972	6.83	10.463028
1	.513009	6.10	.975627	.73	.537382	6.83	.462618
2	.513375	6.10	.975583	.73	.537792	6.83	.462208
3	.513741	6.10	.975539	.72	.538202	6.82	.461798
4	.514107	6.08	.975496	.73	.538611	6.82	.461389
5	.514472	6.08	.975452	.73	.539020	6.82	.460980
6	.514837	6.08	.975408	.72	.539429	6.80	.460571
7	.515202	6.07	.975365	.73	.539837	6.80	.460163
8	.515566	6.07	.975321	.73	.540245	6.80	.459755
9	.515930	6.07	.975277	.73	.540653	6.80	.459347
10	.516294	6.05	.975233	.73	.541061	6.78	.458939
11	9.516657	6.05	9.975189	.73	9.541468	6.78	10.458532
12	.517020	6.03	.975145	.73	.541875	6.77	.458125
13	.517382	6.05	.975101	.73	.542281	6.78	.457719
14	.517745	6.03	.975057	.73	.542688	6.77	.457312
15	.518107	6.02	.975013	.73	.543094	6.75	.456906
16	.518468	6.02	.974969	.73	.543499	6.77	.456501
17	.518829	6.02	.974925	.75	.543905	6.75	.456095
18	.519190	6.02	.974880	.73	.544310	6.75	.455690
19	.519551	6.00	.974836	.73	.544715	6.73	.455285
20	.519911	6.00	.974792	.73	.545119	6.75	.454881
21	9.520271	6.00	9.974748	.75	9.545524	6.73	10.454476
22	.5206[illegible]	5.98	.974703	.73	.545928	6.72	.454072
23	.520990	5.98	.974659	.75	.546331	6.73	.453669
24	.521349	5.97	.974614	.73	.546735	6.72	.453265
25	.521707	5.98	.974570	.75	.547138	6.70	.452862
26	.522066	5.97	.974525	.73	.547540	6.72	.452460
27	.522424	5.95	.974481	.75	.547943	6.70	.452057
28	.522781	5.95	.974436	.75	.548345	6.70	.451655
29	.523138	5.95	.974391	.73	.548747	6.70	.451253
30	.523495	5.95	.974347	.75	.549149	6.68	.450851
31	9.523852	5.93	9.974302	.75	9.549550	6.68	10.450450
32	.524208	5.93	.974257	.75	.549951	6.68	.450049
33	.524564	5.93	.974212	.75	.550352	6.67	.449648
34	.524920	5.92	.974167	.75	.550752	6.68	.449248
35	.525275	5.92	.974122	.75	.551153	6.65	.448847
36	.525630	5.90	.974077	.75	.551552	6.67	.448448
37	.525984	5.92	.974032	.75	.551952	6.65	.448048
38	.526339	5.90	.973987	.75	.552351	6.65	.447649
39	.526693	5.88	.973942	.75	.552750	6.65	.447250
40	.527046	5.90	.973897	.75	.553149	6.65	.446851
41	9.527400	5.88	9.973852	.75	9.553548	6.63	10.446452
42	.527753	5.87	.973807	.77	.553946	6.63	.446054
43	.528105	5.88	.973761	.75	.554344	6.62	.445656
44	.528458	5.87	.973716	.75	.554741	6.63	.445259
45	.528810	5.85	.973671	.77	.555139	6.62	.444861
46	.529161	5.87	.973625	.75	.555536	6.62	.444464
47	.529513	5.85	.973580	.75	.555933	6.60	.444067
48	.529864	5.85	.973535	.77	.556329	6.60	.443671
49	.530215	5.83	.973489	.75	.556725	6.60	.443275
50	.530565	5.83	.973444	.77	.557121	6.60	.442879
51	9.530915	5.83	9.973398	.77	9.557517	6.60	10.442483
52	.531265	5.82	.973352	.75	.557913	6.58	.442087
53	.531614	5.82	.973307	.77	.558308	6.58	.441692
54	.531963	5.82	.973261	.77	.558703	6.57	.441297
55	.532312	5.82	.973215	.77	.559097	6.57	.440903
56	.532661	5.80	.973169	.75	.559491	6.57	.440509
57	.533009	5.80	.973124	.77	.559885	6.57	.440115
58	.533357	5.78	.973078	.77	.560279	6.57	.439721
59	.533704	5.80	.973032	.77	.560673	6.55	.439327
60	9.534052		9.972986		9.561066		10.438934
'	Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.

Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
534052	5.78	9.972986	.77	9.561066	6.55	10.438934	60
534399	5.77	.972940	.77	.561459	6.53	.438541	59
534745	5.78	.972894	.77	.561851	6.55	.438149	58
535092	5.77	.972848	.77	.562244	6.53	.437756	57
535438	5.75	.972802	.78	.562636	6.53	.437364	56
535783	5.77	.972755	.77	.563028	6.52	.436972	55
536129	5.75	.972709	.77	.563419	6.53	.436581	54
536474	5.73	.972663	.77	.563811	6.52	.436189	53
536818	5.75	.972617	.78	.564202	6.52	435798	52
537163	5.73	.972570	.77	.564593	6.50	.435407	51
537507	5.73	.972524	.77	.564983	6.50	.435017	50
537851	5.72	9.972478	.78	9.565373	6.50	10.434627	49
538194	5.73	.972431	.77	.565763	6.50	.434237	48
538538	5.70	.972385	.78	.566153	6.48	.433847	47
538880	5.72	.972338	.78	.566542	6.50	.433458	46
539223	5.70	.972291	.77	.566932	6.47	.433068	45
539565	5.70	.972245	.78	.567320	6.48	.432680	44
539907	5.68	.972198	.78	.567709	6.48	.432291	43
540249	5.68	.972151	.77	.568098	6.47	.431902	42
540590	5.68	.972105	.78	.568486	6.45	.431514	41
540931	5.68	.972058	.78	.568873	6.47	.431127	40
541272	5:68	9.972011	.78	9.569261	6.45	10.430739	39
541613	5.67	.971964	.78	.569648	6.45	.430352	38
541953	5.67	.971917	.78	.570035	6.45	.429965	37
542293	5.65	.971870	.78	.570422	6.45	.429578	36
542632	5.65	.971823	.78	.570809	6.43	.429191	35
542971	5.65	.971776	.78	.571195	6.43	.428805	34
543310	5.65	.971729	.78	.571581	6.43	.428419	33
543649	5.63	.971682	.78	.571967	6.42	.428033	32
543987	5.63	.971635	.78	572352	6.43	.427648	31
544325	5.63	.971588	.80	.572738	6.42	.427262	30
544663	5.62	9.971540	.78	9.573123	6.40	10.426877	29
545000	5.63	.971493	.78	.573507	6.42	.426493	28
545338	5.60	971446	.80	.573892	6.40	.426108	27
545674	5.62	.971398	.78	.574276	6.40	.425724	26
46011	5.60	.971351	.80	.574660	6.40	.425340	25
46347	5.60	.971303	.78	.575044	6.38	.424956	24
46683	5.60	.971256	.80	.575427	6.38	.424573	23
47019	5.58	.971208	.78	.575810	6.38	.424190	22
47354	5.58	.971161	.80	.576193	6.38	.423807	21
47689	5.58	.971113	.78	.576576	6.38	.423424	20
48024	5.58	9.971066	.80	9.576959	6.37	10.423041	19
48359	5.57	.971018	.80	.577341	6.37	.422659	18
48693	5.57	.970970	.80	.577723	6.35	.422277	17
49027	5.55	970922	.80	.578104	6.37	.421896	16
49360	5.55	.970874	.78	.578486	6.35	.421514	15
49693	5.55	.970827	.80	.578867	6.35	.421133	14
50026	5.55	.970779	.80	.579248	6.35	.420752	13
50359	5.55	.970731	.80	.579629	6.33	.420371	12
50692	5.53	.970683	.80	.580009	6.33	.419991	11
51024	5.53	.970635	.82	.580389	6.33	.419611	10
51356	5.52	9.970586	.80	9.580769	6.33	10.419231	9
51687	5.52	.970538	.80	.581149	6.32	.418851	8
52018	5.52	.970490	.80	.581528	6.32	.418472	7
52349	5.52	.970442	.80	581907	6 32	.418093	6
52680	5.50	.970394	.82	.582286	6.32	.417714	5
53010	5.52	.970345	.80	.582665	6.32	.417335	4
53341	5.48	.970297	.80	.583044	6.30	.416956	3
53670	5.50	.970249	.82	.583422	6.30	.416578	2
54000	5.48	.970200	.80	.583800	6.28	.416200	1
54329		9.970152		9.584177		10.415823	0
Sine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.
0	9.554329	5.48	9.970152	.82	9.584177	6.30	10.415823
1	.554658	5.48	.970103	.80	.584555	6.28	.415445
2	.554987	5.47	.970055	.82	.584932	6.28	.415068
3	.555315	5.47	.970006	.82	.585309	6.28	.414691
4	.555643	5.47	.969957	.80	.585686	6.27	.414314
5	.555971	5.47	.969909	.82	.586062	6.28	.413938
6	.556299	5.45	.969860	.82	.586439	6.27	.413561
7	.556626	5.45	.969811	.82	.586815	6.25	.413185
8	.556953	5.45	.969762	.80	.587190	6.27	.412810
9	.557280	5.43	.969714	.82	.587566	6.25	.412434
10	.557606	5.43	.969665	.82	.587941	6.25	.412059
11	9.557932	5.43	9.969616	.82	9.588316	6.25	10.411684
12	.558258	5.42	.969567	.82	.588691	6.25	.411309
13	.558583	5.43	.969518	.82	.589066	6.23	.410934
14	.558909	5.42	.969469	.82	.589440	6.23	.410560
15	.559234	5.40	.969420	.83	.589814	6.23	.410186
16	.559558	5.42	.969370	.82	.590188	6.23	.409812
17	.559883	5.40	.969321	.82	.590562	6.22	.409438
18	.560207	5.40	.969272	.82	.590935	6.22	.409065
19	.560531	5.40	.969223	.83	.591308	6.22	.408622
20	.560855	5.38	.969173	.82	.591681	6.22	.408319
21	9.561178	5.38	9.969124	.82	9.592054	6.20	10.407946
22	.561501	5.38	.969075	.83	.592426	6.22	.407574
23	.561824	5.37	.969025	.82	.592799	6.20	.407201
24	.562146	5.37	.968976	.83	.593171	6.18	.406829
25	.562468	5.37	.968926	.82	.593542	6.20	.406458
26	.562790	5.37	.968877	.83	.593914	6.18	.406086
27	.563112	5.35	.968827	.83	.594285	6.18	.405715
28	.563433	5.37	.968777	.82	.594656	6.18	.405344
29	.563755	5.33	.968728	.83	.595027	6.18	.404973
30	.564075	5.35	.968678	.83	.595398	6.17	.404602
31	9.564396	5.33	9.968628	.83	9.595768	6.17	10.404232
32	.564716	5.33	.968578	.83	.596138	6.17	.403862
33	.565036	5.33	.968528	.82	.596508	6.17	.403492
34	.565356	5.33	.968479	.83	.596878	6.15	.403122
35	.565676	5.32	.968429	.83	.597247	6.15	.402753
36	.565995	5.32	.968379	.83	.597616	6.15	.402384
37	.566314	5.30	.968329	.85	.597985	6.15	.402015
38	.566632	5.32	.968278	.83	.598354	6.13	.401646
39	.566951	5.30	.968228	.83	.598722	6.15	.401278
40	.567269	5.30	.968178	.83	.599091	6.13	.400909
41	9.567587	5.28	9.968128	.83	9.599459	6.13	10.400541
42	.567904	5.30	.968078	.85	.599827	6.12	.400173
43	.568222	5.28	.968027	.83	.600194	6.13	.399806
44	.568539	5.28	.967977	.83	.600562	6.12	.399438
45	.568856	5.27	.967927	.85	.600929	6.12	.399071
46	.569172	5.27	.967876	.83	.601296	6.12	.398704
47	.569488	5.27	.967826	.85	.601663	6.10	.398337
48	.569804	5.27	.967775	.83	.602029	6.10	.397971
49	.570120	5.25	.967725	.85	.602395	6.10	.397605
50	.570435	5.27	.967674	.83	.602761	6.10	.397239
51	9.570751	5.25	9.967624	.85	9.603127	6.10	10.396873
52	.571066	5.23	.967573	.85	.603493	6.08	.396507
53	.571380	5.25	.967522	.85	.603858	6.08	.396142
54	.571695	5.23	.967471	.83	.604223	6.08	.395777
55	.572009	5.23	.967421	.85	.604588	6.08	.395412
56	.572323	5.22	.967370	.85	.604953	6.07	.395047
57	.572636	5.23	.967319	.85	.605317	6.08	.394683
58	.572950	5.22	.967268	.85	.605682	6.07	.394318
59	.573263	5.20	.967217	.85	.606046	6.07	.393954
60	9.573575		9.967166		9.606410		10.393590
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	9.573575	5.22	9.967166	.85	9.606410	6.05	10.393590	60
1	.573888	5.20	.967115	.85	.606773	6.07	.393227	59
2	.574200	5.20	.967064	.85	.607137	6.05	.392863	58
3	.574512	5.20	.967013	.87	.607500	6.05	.392500	57
4	.574824	5.20	.966961	.85	.607863	6.03	.392137	56
5	.575136	5.18	.966910	.85	.608225	6.05	.391775	55
6	.575447	5.18	.966859	.85	.608588	6.03	.391412	54
7	.575758	5.18	.966808	.87	.608950	6.03	.391050	53
8	.576069	5.17	.966756	.85	.609312	6.03	.390688	52
9	.576379	5.17	.966705	.87	.609674	6.03	.390326	51
10	.576689	5.17	.966653	.85	.610036	6.02	.389964	50
11	9.576999	5.17	9.966602	.87	9.610397	6.03	10.389603	49
12	.577309	5.15	.966550	.85	.610759	6.02	.389241	48
13	.577618	5.15	.966499	.87	.611120	6.00	.388880	47
14	.577927	5.15	.966447	.87	.611480	6.02	.388520	46
15	.578236	5.15	.966395	.85	.611841	6.00	.388159	45
16	.578545	5.13	.966344	.87	.612201	6.00	.387799	44
17	.578853	5.15	.966292	.87	.612561	6.00	.387439	43
18	.579162	5.13	.966240	.87	.612921	6.00	.387079	42
19	.579470	5.12	.966188	.87	.613281	6.00	.386719	41
20	.579777	5.13	.966136	.85	.613641	5.98	.386359	40
21	9.580085	5.12	9.966085	.87	9.614000	5.98	10.386000	39
22	.580392	5.12	.966033	.87	.614359	5.98	.385641	38
23	.580699	5.10	.965981	.87	.614718	5.98	.385282	37
24	.581005	5.12	.965929	.88	.615077	5.97	.384923	36
25	.581312	5.10	.965876	.87	.615435	5.97	.384565	35
26	.581618	5.10	.965824	.87	.615793	5.97	.384207	34
27	.581924	5.08	.965772	.87	.616151	5.97	.383849	33
28	.582229	5.10	.965720	.87	.616509	5.97	.383491	32
29	.582535	5.08	.965668	.88	.616867	5.95	.383133	31
30	.582840	5.08	.965615	.87	.617224	5.97	.382776	30
31	9.583145	5.07	9.965563	.87	9.617582	5.95	10.382418	29
32	.583449	5.08	.965511	.88	.617939	5.93	.382061	28
33	.583754	5.07	.965458	.87	.618295	5.95	.381705	27
34	.584058	5.05	.965406	.88	.618652	5.93	.381348	26
35	.584361	5.07	.965353	.87	.619008	5.93	.380992	25
36	.584665	5.05	.965301	.88	.619364	5.93	.380636	24
37	.584968	5.07	.965248	.88	.619720	5.93	.380280	23
38	.585272	5.03	.965195	.87	.620076	5.93	.379924	22
39	.585574	5.05	.965143	.88	.620432	5.92	.379568	21
40	.585877	5.03	.965090	.88	.620787	5.92	.379213	20
41	9.586179	5.05	9.965037	.88	9.621142	5.92	10.378858	19
42	.586482	5.02	.964984	.88	.621497	5.92	.378503	18
43	.586783	5.03	.964931	.87	.621852	5.92	.378148	17
44	.587085	5.02	.964879	.88	.622207	5.90	.377793	16
45	.587386	5.03	.964826	.88	.622561	5.90	.377439	15
46	.587688	5.02	.964773	.88	.622915	5.90	.377085	14
47	.587989	5.00	.964720	.90	.623269	5.90	.376731	13
48	.588289	5.02	.964666	.88	.623623	5.88	.376377	12
49	.588590	5.00	.964613	.88	.623976	5.90	.376024	11
50	.588890	5.00	.964560	.88	.624330	5.88	.375670	10
51	9.589190	4.98	9.964507	.88	9.624683	5.88	10.375317	9
52	.589489	5.00	.964454	.90	.625036	5.87	.374964	8
53	.589789	4.98	.964400	.88	.625388	5.88	.374612	7
54	.590088	4.98	.964347	.88	.625741	5.87	.374259	6
55	.590387	4.98	.964294	.90	.626093	5.87	.373907	5
56	.590686	4.97	.964240	.88	.626445	5.87	.373555	4
57	.590984	4.97	.964187	.90	.626797	5.87	.373203	3
58	.591282	4.97	.964133	.88	.627149	5.87	.372851	2
59	.591580	4.97	.964080	.90	.627501	5.85	.372499	1
60	9.591878		9.964026		9.627852		10.372148	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

TABLE XVIII.—LOGARITHMIC SINES.

'	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.
0	9.591878	4.97	9.964026	.90	9.627852	5.85	10.372148
1	.592176	4.95	.963972	.88	.628203	5.85	.371797
2	.592473	4.95	.963919	90	.628554	5.85	.371446
3	.592770	4.95	.963865	.90	.628905	5.83	.371095
4	.593067	4.93	.963811	.90	.629255	5.85	.370745
5	.593363	4.93	.963757	.88	.629606	5.83	.370394
6	.593659	4.93	.963704	.90	.629956	5.83	.370044
7	.593955	4.93	.963650	.90	.630306	5.83	.369694
8	.594251	4.93	.963596	.90	.630656	5.82	.369344
9	.594547	4.92	.963542	.90	.631005	5.83	.368995
10	.594842	4.92	.963488	.90	.631355	5.82	.368645
11	9.595137	4.92	9.963434	.92	9.631704	5.82	10.368296
12	.595432	4.92	.963379	.90	.632053	5.82	.367947
13	.595727	4.90	.963325	.90	.632402	5.80	.367598
14	.596021	4.90	.963271	.90	.632750	5.82	.367250
15	.596315	4.90	.963217	.90	.633099	5.80	.366901
16	.596609	4.90	963163	.92	.633447	5.80	.366553
17	.596903	4.88	.963108	.90	.633795	5.80	.366205
18	.597196	4.90	.963054	.92	.634143	5.78	.365857
19	.597490	4.88	.962999	.90	.634490	5.80	.365510
20	.597783	4.87	.962945	.92	.634838	5.78	.365162
21	9.598075	4.88	9.962890	.90	9.635185	5.78	10.364815
22	.598368	4.87	.962836	.92	.635532	5.78	.364468
23	.598660	4.87	.962781	.90	.635879	5.78	.364121
24	.598952	4.87	.962727	.92	.636226	5.77	.363774
25	.599244	4.87	.962672	.92	.636572	5.78	.363428
26	.599536	4.85	.962617	.92	.636919	5.77	.363081
27	.599827	4.85	.962562	.90	.637265	5.77	.362735
28	.600118	4.85	.962508	.92	.637611	5.75	.362389
29	.600409	4.85	.962453	.92	.637956	5.77	.362044
30	.600700	4.83	.962398	.92	.638302	5.75	.361698
31	9.600990	4.83	9.962343	.92	9.638647	5.75	10.361353
32	.601280	4.83	.962288	.92	.638992	5.75	.361008
33	.601570	4.83	.962233	.92	.639337	5.75	.360663
34	.601860	4.83	.962178	.92	.639682	5.75	.360318
35	.602150	4.82	.962123	.93	.640027	5.73	.359973
36	.602439	4.82	.962067	.92	.640371	5.75	.359629
37	.602728	4.82	.962012	.92	.640716	5.73	.359284
38	.603017	4.80	.961957	.92	.641060	5.73	.358940
39	.603305	4.82	.961902	.93	.641404	5.72	.358596
40	.603594	4.80	.961846	.92	.641747	5.73	.358253
41	9.603882	4.80	9.961791	.93	9.642091	5.72	10.357909
42	.604170	4.78	.961735	.92	.642434	5.72	.357566
43	.604457	4.80	.961680	.93	.642777	5.72	.357223
44	.604745	4.78	.961624	.92	.643120	5.72	.356880
45	.605032	4.78	.961569	.93	.643463	5.72	.356537
46	.605319	4.78	.961513	.92	.643806	5.70	.356194
47	.605606	4.77	.961458	.93	.644148	5.70	.355852
48	.605892	4.78	.961402	.93	.644490	5.70	.355510
49	.606179	4.77	.961346	.93	.644832	5.70	.355168
50	.606465	4.77	.961290	.92	.645174	5.70	.354826
51	9.606751	4.75	9.961235	.93	9.645516	5.68	10.354484
52	.607036	4.77	.961179	.93	.645857	5.70	.354143
53	.607322	4.75	.961123	.93	.646199	5.68	.353801
54	.607607	4.75	.961067	.93	.646540	5.68	.353460
55	.607892	4.75	.961011	.93	.646881	5.68	.353119
56	.608177	4.73	.960955	.93	.647222	5.67	.352778
57	.608461	4.73	960899	.93	.647562	5.68	.352438
58	.608745	4.73	.960843	.95	.647903	5.67	.352097
59	.609029	4.73	.960786	.93	.648243	5.67	.351757
60	9.609313		9.960730		9.648583		10.351417
'	Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.

e.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
313	4.73	9.960730	.93	9.648583	5.67	10.351417	60
597	4.72	.960674	.93	.648923	5.67	.351077	59
880	4.73	.960618	.95	.649263	5.65	.350737	58
164	4.72	.960561	.93	.649602	5.67	.350398	57
447	4.70	.960505	.95	.649942	5.65	.350058	56
729	4.72	.960448	.93	.650281	5.65	.349719	55
012	4.70	.960392	.95	.650620	5.65	.349380	54
294	4.70	.960335	.93	.650959	5.63	.349041	53
576	4.70	.960279	.95	.651297	5.65	.348703	52
858	4.70	.960222	.95	.651636	5.63	.348364	51
140	4.68	.960165	.93	.651974	5.63	.348026	50
421	4.68	9.960109	.95	9.652312	5.63	10.347688	49
702	4.68	.960052	.95	.652650	5.63	.347350	48
983	4.68	.959995	.95	.652988	5.63	.347012	47
264	4.68	.959938	.93	.653326	5.62	.346674	46
545	4.67	.959882	.95	.653663	5.62	.346337	45
825	4.67	.959825	.95	.654000	5.62	.346000	44
105	4.67	.959768	.95	.654337	5.62	.345663	43
385	4.67	.959711	.95	.654674	5.62	.345326	42
665	4.65	.959654	.97	.655011	5.62	.344989	41
944	4.65	.959596	.95	.655348	5.60	.344652	40
223	4.65	9.959539	.95	9.655684	5.60	10.344316	39
502	4.65	.959482	.95	.656020	5.60	.343980	38
781	4.65	.959425	.95	.656356	5.60	.343644	37
060	4.63	.959368	.97	.656692	5.60	.343308	36
338	4.63	.959310	.95	.657028	5.60	.342972	35
616	4.63	.959253	.97	.657364	5.58	.342636	34
894	4.63	.959195	.95	.657699	5.58	.342301	33
172	4.63	.959138	.97	.658034	5.58	.341966	32
450	4.62	.959080	.95	.658369	5.58	.341631	31
727	4.62	.959023	.97	.658704	5.58	.341296	30
004	4.62	9.958965	.95	9.659039	5.57	10.340961	29
281	4.62	.958908	.97	.659373	5.58	.340627	28
558	4.60	.958850	.97	.659708	5.57	.340292	27
834	4.60	.958792	.97	.660042	5.57	.339958	26
110	4.60	.958734	.95	.660376	5.57	.339624	25
386	4.60	.958677	.97	.660710	5.55	.339290	24
662	4.60	.958619	.97	.661043	5.57	.338957	23
938	4.58	.958561	.97	.661377	5.55	.338623	22
213	4.58	.958503	.97	.661710	5.55	.338290	21
488	4.58	.958445	.97	.662043	5.55	.337957	20
768	4.58	9.958387	.97	9.662376	5.55	10.337624	19
038	4.58	.958329	.97	.662709	5.55	.337291	18
313	4.57	.958271	.97	.663042	5.55	.336958	17
587	4.57	.958213	.98	.663375	5.53	.336625	16
861	4.57	.958154	.97	.663707	5.53	.336293	15
135	4.57	.958096	.97	.664039	5.53	.335961	14
409	4.55	.958038	.98	.664371	5.53	.335629	13
682	4.57	.957979	.97	.664703	5.53	.335297	12
956	4.55	.957921	.97	.665035	5.52	.334965	11
229	4.55	.957863	.98	.665366	5.53	.334634	10
502	4.53	9.957804	.97	9.665698	5.52	10.334302	9
774	4.55	.957746	.98	.666029	5.52	.333971	8
047	4.53	.957687	.98	.666360	5.52	.333640	7
319	4.53	.957628	.97	.666691	5.50	.333309	6
591	4.53	.957570	.98	.667021	5.52	.332979	5
863	4.53	.957511	.98	.667352	5.50	.332648	4
135	4.52	.957452	.98	.667682	5.52	.332318	3
406	4.52	.957393	.97	.668013	5.50	.331987	2
677	4.52	.957335	.98	.668343	5.50	.331657	1
948		9.957276		9.668673		10.331327	0
ne.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	
0	9.625948	4.52	9.957276	.98	9.668673	5.48	10.331327	60
1	.626219	4.52	.957217	.98	.669002	5.50	.330998	59
2	.626490	4.50	.957158	.98	.669332	5.48	.330668	58
3	.626760	4.50	.957099	.98	.669661	5.50	.330339	57
4	.627030	4.50	.957040	.98	669991	5.48	.330009	56
5	.627300	4.50	.956981	1.00	.670320	5.48	.329680	55
6	.627570	4.50	.956921	.98	.670649	5.47	.329351	54
7	.627840	4.48	.956862	.98	.670977	5.48	.329023	53
8	.628109	4.48	.956803	.98	.671306	5.48	.328694	52
9	.628378	4.48	.956744	1.00	.671635	5.47	.328365	51
10	.628647	4.48	.956684	.98	.671963	5.47	.328037	50
11	9.628916	4.48	9.956625	98	9.672291	5.47	10.327709	49
12	.629185	4.47	.956566	1.00	.672619	5.47	.327381	48
13	.629453	4.47	.956506	.98	.672947	5.45	.327053	47
14	.629721	4.47	.956447	1.00	.673274	5.47	.326726	46
15	.629989	4.47	.956387	1.00	.673602	5.45	.326398	45
16	.630257	4.45	.956327	.98	.673929	5.47	.326071	44
17	.630524	4.47	.956268	1.00	.674257	5.45	.325743	43
18	.630792	4.45	.956208	1.00	.674584	5.45	.325416	42
19	.631059	4.45	.956148	.98	.674911	5.43	.325089	41
20	.631326	4.45	.956089	1.00	.675237	5.45	.324763	40
21	9.631593	4.43	9.956029	1.00	9.675564	5.43	10.324436	39
22	.631859	4.43	.955969	1.00	.675890	5.45	.324110	38
23	.632125	4.45	.955909	1.00	.676217	5.43	.323783	37
24	.632392	4.43	.955849	1.00	676543	5.43	.323457	36
25	.632658	4.42	.955789	1.00	.676869	5.42	.323131	35
26	.632923	4.43	.955729	1.00	.677194	5.43	.322806	34
27	.633189	4.42	.955669	1.00	.677520	5.43	.322480	33
28	.633454	4.42	.955609	.98	.677846	5.42	.322154	32
29	.633719	4.42	.955548	1.00	.678171	5.42	.321829	31
30	.633984	4.42	.955488	1.00	.678496	5.42	.321504	30
31	9.634249	4.42	9.955428	1.00	9.678821	5.42	10.321179	29
32	.634514	4.40	.955368	1.02	.679146	5.42	.320854	28
33	.634778	4.40	.955307	1.00	.679471	5.40	.320529	27
34	.635042	4.40	.955247	1.02	.679795	5.42	.320205	26
35	.635306	4.40	.955186	1.00	.680120	5.40	.319880	25
36	.635570	4.40	.955126	1.02	.680444	5.40	.319556	24
37	.635834	4.38	.955065	1.00	.680768	5.40	.319232	23
38	.636097	4 38	.955005	1.02	.681092	5.40	.318908	22
39	.636360	4.38	.954944	1.02	.681416	5.40	.318584	21
40	.636623	4.38	.954883	1.00	.681740	5.38	.318260	20
41	9.636886	4.37	9.954823	1.02	9.682063	5.40	10.317937	19
42	.637148	4.38	.954762	1.02	.682387	5.38	.317613	18
43	.637411	4.37	.954701	1.02	.682710	5.38	.317290	17
44	.637673	4.37	.954640	1.02	.683033	5.38	.316967	16
45	.637935	4.37	.954579	1.02	.683356	5.38	.316644	15
46	.638197	4.35	.954518	1.02	.683679	5.37	.316321	14
47	.638458	4.37	.954457	1.02	.684001	5.38	.315999	13
48	.638720	4.35	.954396	1.02	.684324	5.37	.315676	12
49	.638981	4.35	.954335	1.02	.684646	5.37	.315354	11
50	.639242	4.35	.954274	1.02	.684968	5.37	.315032	10
51	9.639503	4.35	9.954213	1.02	9.685290	5.37	10.314710	9
52	.639764	4.33	.954152	1.03	.685612	5.37	.314388	8
53	.640024	4.33	.954090	1.02	.685934	5.35	.314066	7
54	.640284	4.33	.954029	1.02	.686255	5.37	.313745	6
55	.640544	4.33	.953968	1.03	.686577	5.35	.313423	5
56	640804	4.33	.953906	1.02	.686898	5.35	.313102	4
57	.641064	4.33	.953845	1.03	.687219	5.35	.312781	3
58	.641324	4.32	.953783	1.02	.687540	5.35	.312460	2
59	.641583	4.32	.953722	1.03	.687861	5.35	.312139	1
60	9.641842		9.953660		9.688182		10.311818	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

'	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	
0	9.641842	4.32	9.953660	1.02	9.688182	5.33	10.311818	
1	.642101	4.32	.953599	1.03	.688502	5.32	.311498	
2	.642360	4.30	.953537	1.03	.688823	5.33	.311177	58
3	.642618	4.32	.953475	1.03	.689143	5.33	.310857	57
4	.642877	4.30	.953413	1.02	.689463	5.33	.310537	56
5	.643135	4.30	.953352	1.03	.689783	5.33	.310217	55
6	.643393	4.28	953290	1.03	.690103	5.33	.309897	54
7	.643650	4.30	.953228	1.03	.690423	5.32	.309577	53
8	.643908	4.28	.953166	1.03	.690742	5.33	.309258	52
9	.644165	4.30	.953104	1.03	.691062	5.32	.308938	51
0	.644423	4.28	.953042	1.03	.691381	5.32	.308619	50
1	9.644680	4.27	9.952980	1.03	9.691700	5.32	10.308300	49
2	.644936	4.28	.952918	1.05	.692019	5.32	.307981	48
3	.645193	4.28	.952855	1.03	.692338	5.30	.307662	47
4	.645450	4.27	.952793	1.03	.692656	5.32	.307344	46
5	.645706	4.27	.952731	1.03	.692975	5.30	.307025	45
6	.645962	4.27	.952669	1.05	.693293	5.32	.306707	44
7	.646218	4.27	.952606	1.03	.693612	5.30	306388	43
8	.646474	4.25	.952544	1.05	.693930	5.30	.306070	42
9	.646729	4.25	.952481	1.03	.694248	5.30	.305752	41
0	.646984	4.27	.952419	1.05	.694566	5.28	.305434	40
1	9.647240	4.23	9.952356	1.03	9.694883	5.30	10.305117	39
2	.647494	4.25	.952294	1.05	.695201	5.28	.304799	38
3	.647749	4.25	.952231	1.05	.695518	5.30	.304482	37
4	.648004	4.23	.952168	1.03	.695836	5.28	.304164	36
5	.648258	4.23	.952106	1.05	.696153	5.28	.303847	35
6	.648512	4.23	.952043	1.05	.696470	5.28	.303530	34
7	.648766	4.23	.951980	1.05	.696787	5.27	.303213	33
8	.649020	4.23	.951917	1.05	.697103	5.28	.302897	32
	.649274	4.22	.951854	1.05	.697420	5.27	.302580	31
	.649527	4.23	.951791	1.05	.697736	5.28	.302264	30
	9.649781	4.22	9.951728	1.05	9.698053	5.27	10.301947	29
	.650034	4.22	.951665	1.05	.698369	5.27	.301631	28
	.650287	4.20	.951602	1.05	.698685	5.27	.301315	27
	.650539	4.22	.951539	1.05	.699001	5.25	.300999	26
	.650792	4.20	.951476	1.07	.699316	5.27	.300684	25
	.651044	4.22	.951412	1.05	.699632	5.25	.300368	24
	.651297	4.20	.951349	1.05	.699947	5.27	.300053	23
	.651549	4.18	.951286	1.07	.700263	5.25	.299737	22
	.651800	4.20	.951222	1.05	.700578	5.25	.299422	21
	.652052	4.20	.951159	1.05	.700893	5.25	.299107	20
	9.652304	4.18	9.951096	1.07	9.701208	5.25	10.298792	19
	.652555	4.18	.951032	1.07	.701523	5.23	.298477	18
	.652806	4.18	.950968	1.05	.701837	5.25	.298163	17
	.653057	4.18	.950905	1.07	.702152	5.23	.297848	16
	653308	4.17	.950841	1.05	.702466	5.25	.297534	15
	.653558	4.17	.950778	1.07	.702781	5.23	.297219	14
	.653808	4.18	.950714	1.07	.703095	5.23	.296905	13
	.654059	4.17	.950650	1.07	.703409	5.22	.296591	12
	654309	4.15	.950586	1.07	.703722	5.23	.296278	11
	654558	4.17	.950522	1.07	.704036	5.23	.295964	10
	654808	4.17	9.950458	1.07	9.704350	5.22	10.295650	9
	655058	4.15	.950394	1.07	.704663	5.22	.295337	8
	655307	4.15	.950330	1.07	.704976	5.23	.295024	7
	55556	4.15	.950266	1.07	.705290	5.22	.294710	6
	55805	4.15	.950202	1.07	.705603	5.22	.294397	5
	56054	4.13	.950138	1.07	.705916	5.20	.294084	4
	56302	4.15	.950074	1.07	.706228	5.22	.293772	3
	6551	4.13	.950010	1.08	.706541	5.23	.293459	2
	6799	4.13	.949945	1.07	.706854	5.20	.293146	1
	7047		9.949881		9.707166		10.292834	0
	ne.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	'

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	9.657047	4.13	9.949881	1.08	9.707166	5.20	10.292834	60
1	.657295	4.12	.949816	1.07	.707478	5.20	.292522	59
2	.657542	4.13	.949752	1.07	.707790	5.20	.292210	58
3	.657790	4.12	.949688	1.08	.708102	5.20	.291898	57
4	.658037	4.12	.949623	1.08	.708414	5.20	.291586	56
5	.658284	4.12	.949558	1.07	.708726	5.18	.291274	55
6	.658531	4.12	.949494	1.08	.709037	5.20	.290963	54
7	.658778	4.12	.949429	1.08	.709349	5.18	.290651	53
8	.659025	4.10	.949364	1.07	.709660	5.18	.290340	52
9	.659271	4.10	.949300	1.08	.709971	5.18	.290029	51
10	.659517	4.10	.949235	1.08	.710282	5.18	.289718	50
11	9.659763	4.10	9.949170	1.08	9.710593	5.18	10.289407	49
12	.660009	4.10	.949105	1.08	.710904	5.18	.289096	48
13	.660255	4.10	.949040	1.08	.711215	5.17	.288785	47
14	.660501	4.08	.948975	1.08	.711525	5.18	.288475	46
15	.660746	4.08	.948910	1.08	.711836	5.17	.288164	45
16	.660991	4.08	.948845	1.08	.712146	5.17	.287854	44
17	.661236	4.08	.948780	1.08	.712456	5.17	.287544	43
18	.661481	4.08	.948715	1.08	.712766	5.17	.287234	42
19	.661726	4.07	.948650	1.10	.713076	5.17	.286924	41
20	.661970	4.07	.948584	1.08	.713386	5.17	.286614	40
21	9.662214	4.08	9.948519	1.08	9.713696	5.15	10.286304	39
22	.662459	4.07	.948454	1.10	.714005	5.15	.285995	38
23	.662703	4.05	.948388	1.08	.714314	5.17	.285686	37
24	.662946	4.07	.948323	1.10	.714624	5.15	.285376	36
25	.663190	4.05	.948257	1.08	.714933	5.15	.285067	35
26	.663433	4.07	.948192	1.10	.715242	5.15	.284758	34
27	.663677	4.05	.948126	1.10	.715551	5.15	.284449	33
28	.663920	4.05	.948060	1.08	.715860	5.13	.284140	32
29	.664163	4.05	.947995	1.10	.716168	5.15	.283832	31
30	.664406	4.03	.947929	1.10	.716477	5.13	.283523	30
31	9.664648	4.05	9.947863	1.10	9.716785	5.13	10.283215	29
32	.664891	4.03	.947797	1.10	.717093	5.13	.282907	28
33	.665133	4.03	.947731	1.10	.717401	5.13	.282599	27
34	.665375	4.03	.947665	1.08	.717709	5.13	.282291	26
35	.665617	4.03	.947600	1.12	.718017	5.13	.281983	25
36	.665859	4.02	.947533	1.10	.718325	5.13	.281675	24
37	.666100	4.03	.947467	1.10	.718633	5.12	.281367	23
38	.666342	4.02	.947401	1.10	.718940	5.13	.281060	22
39	.666583	4.02	.947335	1.10	.719248	5.12	.280752	21
40	.666824	4.02	.947269	1.10	.719555	5.12	.280445	20
41	9.667065	4.00	9.947203	1.12	9.719862	5.12	10.280138	19
42	.667305	4.02	.947136	1.10	.720169	5.12	.279831	18
43	.667546	4.00	.947070	1.10	.720476	5.12	.279524	17
44	.667786	4.02	.947004	1.12	.720783	5.10	.279217	16
45	.668027	4.00	.946937	1.10	.721089	5.12	.278911	15
46	.668267	3.98	.946871	1.12	.721396	5.10	.278604	14
47	.668506	4.00	.946804	1.10	.721702	5.12	.278298	13
48	.668746	4.00	.946738	1.12	.722009	5.10	.277991	12
49	.668986	3.98	.946671	1.12	.722315	5.10	.277685	11
50	.669225	3.98	.946604	1.10	.722621	5.10	.277379	10
51	9.669464	3.98	9.946538	1.12	9.722927	5.08	10.277073	9
52	.669703	3.98	.946471	1.12	.723232	5.10	.276768	8
53	.669942	3.98	.946404	1.12	.723538	5.10	.276462	7
54	.670181	3.97	.946337	1.12	.723844	5.08	.276156	6
55	.670419	3.98	.946270	1.12	.724149	5.08	.275851	5
56	.670658	3.97	.946203	1.12	.724454	5.10	.275546	4
57	.670896	3.97	.946136	1.12	.724760	5.08	.275240	3
58	.671134	3.97	.946069	1.12	.725065	5.08	.274935	2
59	.671372	3.95	.946002	1.12	.725370	5.07	.274630	1
60	9.671609		9.945935		9.725674		10.274326	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
0	9.698970	3.65	9.937531	1.22	9.761439	4.87	10.238561	60
1	.699189	3.63	.937458	1.22	.761731	4.87	.238269	59
2	.699407	3.65	.937385	1.22	.762023	4.85	.237977	58
3	.699626	3.63	.937312	1.23	.762314	4.87	.237686	57
4	.699844	3.63	.937238	1.22	.762606	4.85	.237394	56
5	.700062	3.63	.937165	1.22	.762897	4.85	.237103	55
6	.700280	3.63	.937092	1.22	.763188	4.85	.236812	54
7	.700498	3.63	.937019	1.22	.763479	4.85	.236521	53
8	.700716	3.62	.936946	1.23	.763770	4.85	.236230	52
9	.700933	3.63	.936872	1.22	.764061	4.85	.235939	51
10	.701151	3.62	.936799	1.23	.764352	4.85	.235648	50
11	9.701368	3.62	9.936725	1.22	9.764643	4.83	10.235357	49
12	.701585	3.62	.936652	1.23	.764933	4.85	.235067	48
13	.701802	3.62	.936578	1.22	.765224	4.83	.234776	47
14	.702019	3.62	.936505	1.23	.765514	4.85	.234486	46
15	.702236	3.60	.936431	1.23	.765805	4.83	.234195	45
16	.702452	3.62	.936357	1.22	.766095	4.83	.233905	44
17	.702669	3.60	.936284	1.23	.766385	4.83	.233615	43
18	.702885	3.60	.936210	1.23	.766675	4.83	.233325	42
19	.703101	3.60	.936136	1.23	.766965	4.83	.233035	41
20	.703317	3.60	.936062	1.23	.767255	4.83	.232745	40
21	9.703533	3.60	9.935988	1.23	9.767545	4.82	10.232455	39
22	.703749	3.58	.935914	1.23	.767834	4.83	.232166	38
23	.703964	3.58	.935840	1.23	.768124	4.83	.231876	37
24	.704179	3.60	.935766	1.23	.768414	4.82	.231586	36
25	.704395	3.58	.935692	1.23	.768703	4.82	.231297	35
26	.704610	3.58	.935618	1.25	.768992	4.82	.231008	34
27	.704825	3.58	.935543	1.23	.769281	4.83	.230719	33
28	.705040	3.57	.935469	1.23	.769571	4.82	.230429	32
29	.705254	3.58	.935395	1.25	.769860	4.80	.230140	31
30	.705469	3.57	.935320	1.23	.770148	4.82	.229852	30
31	9.705683	3.58	9.935246	1.25	9.770437	4.82	10.229563	29
32	.705898	3.57	.935171	1.23	.770726	4.82	.229274	28
33	.706112	3.57	.935097	1.25	.771015	4.80	.228985	27
34	.706326	3.55	.935022	1.23	.771303	4.82	.228697	26
35	.706539	3.57	.934948	1.25	.771592	4.80	.228408	25
36	.706753	3.57	.934873	1.25	.771880	4.80	.228120	24
37	.706967	3.55	.934798	1.25	.772168	4.82	.227832	23
38	.707180	3.55	.934723	1.23	.772457	4.80	.227543	22
39	.707393	3.55	.934649	1.25	.772745	4.80	.227255	21
40	.707606	3.55	.934574	1.25	.773033	4.80	.226967	20
41	9.707819	3.55	9.934499	1.25	9.773321	4.78	10.226679	19
42	.708032	3.55	.934424	1.25	.773608	4.80	.226392	18
43	.708245	3.55	.934349	1.25	.773896	4.80	.226104	17
44	.708458	3.53	.934274	1.25	.774184	4.78	.225816	16
45	.708670	3.53	.934199	1.27	.774471	4.80	.225529	15
46	.708882	3.53	.934123	1.25	.774759	4.78	.225241	14
47	.709094	3.53	.934048	1.25	.775046	4.78	.224954	13
48	.709306	3.53	.933973	1.25	.775333	4.80	.224667	12
49	.709518	3.53	.933898	1.27	.775621	4.78	.224379	11
50	.709730	3.52	.933822	1.25	.775908	4.78	.224092	10
51	9.709941	3.53	9.933747	1.27	9.776195	4.78	10.223805	9
52	.710153	3.52	.933671	1.25	.776482	4.77	.223518	8
53	.710364	3.52	.933596	1.27	.776768	4.78	.223232	7
54	.710575	3.52	.933520	1.25	.777055	4.78	.222945	6
55	.710786	3.52	933445	1.27	.777342	4.77	.222658	5
56	.710997	3.52	.933369	1.27	.777628	4.78	.222372	4
57	.711208	3.52	.933293	1.27	.777915	4.77	.222085	3
58	.711419	3.50	.933217	1.27	.778201	4.78	.221799	2
59	.711629	3.50	.933141	1.25	.778488	4.77	.221512	1
60	9.711839		9.933066		9.778774		10.221226	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

'	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	'
0	9.685571	3.80	9.941819	1.17	9.743752	4.97	10.256248	60
1	.685799	3.80	.941749	1.17	.744050	4.97	.255950	59
2	.686027	3.78	.941679	1.17	.744348	4.95	.255652	58
3	.686254	3.80	.941609	1.17	.744645	4.97	.255355	57
4	.686482	3.78	.941539	1.17	.744943	4.95	.255057	56
5	.686709	3.78	.941469	1.18	.745240	4.97	.254760	55
6	.686936	3.78	.941398	1.17	.745538	4.95	.254462	54
7	.687163	3.77	.941328	1.17	.745835	4.95	.254165	53
8	.687389	3.78	.941258	1.18	.746132	4.95	.253868	52
9	.687616	3.78	.941187	1.17	.746429	4.95	.253571	51
10	.687843	3.77	.941117	1.18	.746726	4.95	.253274	50
11	9.688069	3.77	9.941046	1.18	9.747023	4.93	10.252977	49
12	.688295	3.77	.940975	1.17	.747319	4.95	.252681	48
13	.688521	3.77	.940905	1.18	.747616	4.95	.252384	47
14	.688747	3.75	.940834	1.18	.747913	4.93	.252087	46
15	.688972	3.77	.940763	1.17	.748209	4.93	.251791	45
16	.689198	3.75	.940693	1.18	.748505	4.93	.251495	44
17	.689423	3.75	.940622	1.18	.748801	4.93	.251199	43
18	.689648	3.75	.940551	1.18	.749097	4.93	.250903	42
19	.689873	3.75	.940480	1.18	.749393	4.93	.250607	41
20	.690098	3.75	.940409	1.18	.749689	4.93	.250311	40
21	9.690323	3.75	9.940338	1.18	9.749985	4.93	10.250015	39
22	.690548	3.73	.940267	1.18	.750281	4.92	.249719	38
23	.690772	3.73	.940196	1.18	.750576	4.93	.249424	37
24	.690996	3.73	.940125	1.18	.750872	4.92	.249128	36
25	.691220	3.73	.940054	1.20	.751167	4.92	.248833	35
26	.691444	3.73	.939982	1.18	.751462	4.92	.248538	34
27	.691668	3.73	.939911	1.18	.751757	4.92	.248243	33
28	.691892	3.72	.939840	1.20	.752052	4.92	.247948	32
29	.692115	3.73	.939768	1.18	.752347	4.92	.247653	31
30	.692339	3.72	.939697	1.20	.752642	4.92	.247358	30
31	9.692562	3.72	9.939625	1.18	9.752937	4.90	10.247063	29
32	.692785	3.72	.939554	1.20	.753231	4.92	.246769	28
33	.693008	3.72	.939482	1.20	.753526	4.90	.246474	27
34	.693231	3.70	.939410	1.18	.753820	4.92	.246180	26
35	.693453	3.72	.939339	1.20	.754115	4.90	.245885	25
36	.693676	3.70	.939267	1.20	.754409	4.90	.245591	24
37	.693898	3.70	.939195	1.20	.754703	4.90	.245297	23
38	.694120	3.70	.939123	1.18	.754997	4.90	.245003	22
39	.694342	3.70	.939052	1.20	.755291	4.90	.244709	21
40	.694564	3.70	.938980	1.20	.755585	4.88	.244415	20
41	9.694786	3.68	9.938908	1.20	9.755878	4.90	10.244122	19
42	695007	3.70	.938836	1.22	.756172	4.88	.243828	18
43	.695229	3.68	.938763	1.20	.756465	4.90	.243535	17
44	.695450	3.68	.938691	1.20	.756759	4.88	.243241	16
45	695671	3.68	.938619	1.20	.757052	4.88	.242948	15
46	.695892	3.68	.938547	1.20	.757345	4.88	.242655	14
47	.696113	3.68	.938475	1.22	.757638	4.88	.242362	13
48	.696334	3.67	.938402	1.20	.757931	4.88	.242069	12
49	696554	3.68	.938330	1.20	.758224	4.88	.241776	11
50	696775	3.67	.938258	1.22	.758517	4.88	.241483	10
51	9.696995	3.67	9.938185	1.20	9.758810	4.87	10.241190	9
52	.697215	3.67	.938113	1.22	.759102	4.88	.240898	8
53	.697435	3.65	938040	1.22	.759395	4.87	.240605	7
54	.697654	3.67	.937967	1.20	.759687	4.87	.240313	6
55	.697874	3.67	937895	1.22	.759979	4.88	.240021	5
56	.698094	3.65	937822	1.22	.760272	4.87	.239728	4
57	.698313	3.65	937749	1.22	.760564	4.87	.239436	3
58	.698532	3.65	.937676	1.20	760856	4.87	.239144	2
59	.698751	3.65	.937604	1.22	.761148	4.85	.238852	1
60	9.698970		9.937531		9.761439		10.238561	0
'	Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	'

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	9.698970	3.65	9.937531	1.22	9.761439	4.87	10.238561	60
1	.699189	3.63	.937458	1.22	.761731	4.87	.238269	59
2	.699407	3.65	.937385	1.22	.762023	4.85	.237977	58
3	.699626	3.63	.937312	1.23	.762314	4.87	.237686	57
4	.699844	3.63	.937238	1.22	.762606	4.85	.237394	56
5	.700062	3.63	.937165	1.22	.762897	4.85	.237103	55
6	.700280	3.63	.937092	1.22	.763188	4.85	.236812	54
7	.700498	3.63	.937019	1.22	.763479	4.85	.236521	53
8	.700716	3.62	.936946	1.23	.763770	4.85	.236230	52
9	.700933	3.63	.936872	1.22	.764061	4.85	.235939	51
10	.701151	3.62	.936799	1.23	.764352	4.85	.235648	50
11	9.701368	3.62	9.936725	1.22	9.764643	4.83	10.235357	49
12	.701585	3.62	.936652	1.23	.764933	4.85	.235067	48
13	.701802	3.62	.936578	1.22	.765224	4.83	.234776	47
14	.702019	3.62	.936505	1.23	.765514	4.85	.234486	46
15	.702236	3.60	.936431	1.23	.765805	4.83	.234195	45
16	.702452	3.62	.936357	1.22	.766095	4.83	.233905	44
17	.702669	3.60	.936284	1.23	.766385	4.83	.233615	43
18	.702885	3.60	.936210	1.23	.766675	4.83	.233325	42
19	.703101	3.60	.936136	1.23	.766965	4.83	.233035	41
20	.703317	3.60	.936062	1.23	.767255	4.83	.232745	40
21	9.703533	3.60	9.935988	1.23	9.767545	4.82	10.232455	39
22	.703749	3.58	.935914	1.23	.767834	4.83	.232166	38
23	.703964	3.58	.935840	1.23	.768124	4.83	.231876	37
24	.704179	3.60	.935766	1.23	.768414	4.82	.231586	36
25	.704395	3.58	.935692	1.23	.768703	4.82	.231297	35
26	.704610	3.58	.935618	1.25	.768992	4.82	.231008	34
27	.704825	3.58	.935543	1.23	.769281	4.83	.230719	33
28	.705040	3.57	.935469	1.23	.769571	4.82	.230429	32
29	.705254	3.58	.935395	1.25	.769860	4.80	.230140	31
30	.705469	3.57	.935320	1.23	.770148	4.82	.229852	30
31	9.705683	3.58	9.935246	1.25	9.770437	4.82	10.229563	29
32	.705898	3.57	.935171	1.23	.770726	4.82	.229274	28
33	.706112	3.57	.935097	1.25	.771015	4.80	.228985	27
34	.706326	3.55	.935022	1.23	.771303	4.82	.228697	26
35	.706539	3.57	.934948	1.25	.771592	4.80	.228408	25
36	.706753	3.57	.934873	1.25	.771880	4.80	.228120	24
37	.706967	3.55	.934798	1.25	.772168	4.82	.227832	23
38	.707180	3.55	.934723	1.23	.772457	4.80	.227543	22
39	.707393	3.55	.934649	1.25	.772745	4.80	.227255	21
40	.707606	3.55	.934574	1.25	.773033	4.80	.226967	20
41	9.707819	3.55	9.934499	1.25	9.773321	4.78	10.226679	19
42	.708032	3.55	.934424	1.25	.773608	4.80	.226392	18
43	.708245	3.55	.934349	1.25	.773896	4.80	.226104	17
44	.708458	3.53	.934274	1.25	.774184	4.78	.225816	16
45	.708670	3.53	.934199	1.27	.774471	4.80	.225529	15
46	.708882	3.53	.934123	1.25	.774759	4.78	.225241	14
47	.709094	3.53	.934048	1.25	.775046	4.78	.224954	13
48	.709306	3.53	.933973	1.25	.775333	4.80	.224667	12
49	.709518	3.53	.933898	1.27	.775621	4.78	.224379	11
50	.709730	3.52	.933822	1.25	.775908	4.78	.224092	10
51	9.709941	3.53	9.933747	1.27	9.776195	4.78	10.223805	9
52	.710153	3.52	.933671	1.25	.776482	4.77	.223518	8
53	.710364	3.52	.933596	1.27	.776768	4.78	.223232	7
54	.710575	3.52	.933520	1.25	.777055	4.78	.222945	6
55	.710786	3.52	933445	1.27	.777342	4.77	.222658	5
56	.710997	3.52	.933369	1.27	.777628	4.78	.222372	4
57	.711208	3.52	.933293	1.27	.777915	4.77	.222085	3
58	.711419	3.50	.933217	1.27	.778201	4.78	.221799	2
59	.711629	3.50	.933141	1.25	.778488	4.77	.221512	1
60	9.711839		9.933066		9.778774		10.221226	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	9.711839	3.52	9.933066	1.27	9.778774	4.77	10.221226	60
1	.712050	3.50	.932990	1.27	.779060	4.77	.220940	59
2	.712260	3.48	.932914	1.27	.779346	4.77	.220654	58
3	.712469	3.50	.932838	1.27	.779632	4.77	.220368	57
4	.712679	3.50	.932762	1.28	.779918	4.75	.220082	56
5	.712889	3.48	.932685	1.27	.780203	4.77	.219797	55
6	.713098	3.50	.932609	1.27	.780489	4.77	.219511	54
7	.713308	3.48	.932533	1.27	.780775	4.75	.219225	53
8	.713517	3.48	.932457	1.28	.781060	4.77	.218940	52
9	.713726	3.48	.932380	1.27	.781346	4.75	.218654	51
10	.713935	3.48	.932304	1.27	.781631	4.75	.218369	50
11	9.714144	3.47	9.932228	1.28	9.781916	4.75	10.218084	49
12	.714352	3.48	.932151	1.27	.782201	4.75	.217799	48
13	.714561	3.47	.932075	1.28	.782486	4.75	.217514	47
14	.714769	3.48	.931998	1.28	.782771	4.75	.217229	46
15	.714978	3.47	.931921	1.27	.783056	4.75	.216944	45
16	.715186	3.47	.931845	1.28	.783341	4.75	.216659	44
17	.715394	3.47	.931768	1.28	.783626	4.73	.216374	43
18	.715602	3.45	.931691	1.28	.783910	4.75	.216090	42
19	.715809	3.47	.931614	1.28	.784195	4.73	.215805	41
20	.716017	3.45	.931537	1.28	.784479	4.75	.215521	40
21	9.716224	3.47	9.931460	1.28	9.784764	4.73	10.215236	39
22	.716432	3.45	.931383	1.28	.785048	4.73	.214952	38
23	.716639	3.45	.931306	1.28	.785332	4.73	.214668	37
24	.716846	3.45	.931229	1.28	.785616	4.73	.214384	36
25	.717053	3.43	.931152	1.28	.785900	4.73	.214100	35
26	.717259	3.45	.931075	1.28	.786184	4.73	.213816	34
27	.717466	3.45	.930998	1.28	.786468	4.73	.213532	33
28	.717673	3.43	.930921	1.30	.786752	4.73	.213248	32
29	.717879	3.43	.930843	1.28	.787036	4.72	.212964	31
30	.718085	3.43	.930766	1.30	.787319	4.73	.212681	30
31	9.718291	3.43	9.930688	1.28	9.787603	4.72	10.212397	29
32	.718497	3.43	.930611	1.30	.787886	4.73	.212114	28
33	.718703	3.43	.930533	1.28	.788170	4.72	.211830	27
34	.718909	3.42	.930456	1.30	.788453	4.72	.211547	26
35	.719114	3.43	.930378	1.30	.788736	4.72	.211264	25
36	.719320	3.42	.930300	1.28	.789019	4.72	.210981	24
37	.719525	3.42	.930223	1.30	.789302	4.72	.210698	23
38	.719730	3.42	.930145	1.30	.789585	4.72	.210415	22
39	.719935	3.42	.930067	1.30	.789868	4.72	.210132	21
40	.720140	3.42	.929989	1.30	.790151	4.72	.209849	20
41	9.720345	3.40	9.929911	1.30	9.790434	4.70	10.209566	19
42	.720549	3.42	.929833	1.30	.790716	4.72	.209284	18
43	.720754	3.40	.929755	1.30	.790999	4.70	.209001	17
44	.720958	3.40	.929677	1.30	.791281	4.70	.208719	16
45	.721162	3.40	.929599	1.30	.791563	4.72	.208437	15
46	.721366	3.40	.929521	1.32	.791846	4.70	.208154	14
47	.721570	3.40	.929442	1.30	.792128	4.70	.207872	13
48	.721774	3.40	.929364	1.30	.792410	4.70	.207590	12
49	.721978	3.38	.929286	1.32	.792692	4.70	.207308	11
50	.722181	3.40	.929207	1.30	.792974	4.70	.207026	10
51	9.722385	3.38	9.929129	1.32	9.793256	4.70	10.206744	9
52	.722588	3.38	.929050	1.30	.793538	4.68	.206462	8
53	.722791	3.38	.928972	1.32	.793819	4.70	.206181	7
54	.722994	3.38	.928893	1.30	.794101	4.70	.205899	6
55	.723197	3.38	.928815	1.32	.794383	4.68	.205617	5
56	.723400	3.38	.928736	1.32	.794664	4.70	.205336	4
57	.723603	3.37	.928657	1.32	.794946	4.68	.205054	3
58	.723805	3.37	.928578	1.32	.795227	4.68	.204773	2
59	.724007	3.38	.928499	1.32	.795508	4.68	.204492	1
60	9.724210		9.928420		9.795789		10.204211	0
′	*Cosine.*	*D. 1″.*	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	9.724210	3.37	9.928420	1.30	9.795789	4.68	10.204211	60
1	.724412	3.37	.928342	1.32	.796070	4.68	.203930	59
2	.724614	3.37	.928263	1.33	.796351	4.68	.203649	58
3	.724816	3.35	.928183	1.32	.796632	4.68	.203368	57
4	.725017	3.37	.928104	1.32	.796913	4.68	.203087	56
5	.725219	3.35	.928025	1.32	.797194	4.67	.202806	55
6	.725420	3.37	.927946	1.32	.797474	4.68	.202526	54
7	.725622	3.35	.927867	1.33	.797755	4.68	.202245	53
8	.725823	3.35	.927787	1.32	.798036	4.67	.201964	52
9	.726024	3.35	.927708	1.32	.798316	4.67	.201684	51
10	.726225	3.35	.927629	1.33	.798596	4.68	.201404	50
11	9.726426	3.33	9.927549	1.32	9.798877	4.67	10.201123	49
12	.726626	3.35	.927470	1.33	.799157	4.67	.200843	48
13	.726827	3.33	.927390	1.33	.799437	4.67	.200563	47
14	.727027	3.35	.927310	1.32	.799717	4.67	.200283	46
15	.727228	3.33	.927231	1.33	.799997	4.67	.200003	45
16	.727428	3.33	.927151	1.33	.800277	4.67	.199723	44
17	.727628	3.33	.927071	1.33	.800557	4.65	.199443	43
18	.727828	3.32	.926991	1.33	.800836	4.67	.199164	42
19	.728027	3.33	.926911	1.33	.801116	4.67	.198884	41
20	.728227	3.33	.926831	1.33	.801396	4.65	.198604	40
21	9.728427	3.32	9.926751	1.33	9.801675	4.67	10.198325	39
22	.728626	3.32	.926671	1.33	.801955	4.65	.198045	38
23	.728825	3.32	.926591	1.33	.802234	4.65	.197766	37
24	.729024	3.32	.926511	1.33	.802513	4.65	.197487	36
25	.729223	3.32	.926431	1.33	.802792	4.67	.197208	35
26	.729422	3.32	.926351	1.35	.803072	4.65	.196928	34
27	.729621	3.32	.926270	1.33	.803351	4.65	.196649	33
28	.729820	3.30	.926190	1.33	.803630	4.65	.196370	32
29	.730018	3.32	.926110	1.35	.803909	4.63	.196091	31
30	.730217	3.30	.926029	1.33	.804187	4.65	.195813	30
31	9.730415	3.30	9.925949	1.35	9.804466	4.65	10.195534	29
32	.730613	3.30	.925868	1.33	.804745	4.63	.195255	28
33	.730811	3.30	.925788	1.35	.805023	4.65	.194977	27
34	.731009	3.28	.925707	1.35	.805302	4.63	.194698	26
35	.731206	3.30	.925626	1.35	.805580	4.65	.194420	25
36	.731404	3.30	.925545	1.33	.805859	4.63	.194141	24
37	.731602	3.28	.925465	1.35	.806137	4.63	.193863	23
38	.731799	3.28	.925384	1.35	.806415	4.63	.193585	22
39	.731996	3.28	.925303	1.35	.806693	4.63	.193307	21
40	.732193	3.28	.925222	1.35	.806971	4.63	.193029	20
41	9.732390	3.28	9.925141	1.35	9.807249	4.63	10.192751	19
42	.732587	3.28	.925060	1.35	.807527	4.63	.192473	18
43	.732784	3.27	.924979	1.37	.807805	4.63	.192195	17
44	.732980	3.28	.924897	1.35	.808083	4.63	.191917	16
45	.733177	3.27	.924816	1.35	.808361	4.62	.191639	15
46	.733373	3.27	.924735	1.35	.808638	4.63	.191362	14
47	.733569	3.27	.924654	1.37	.808916	4.62	.191084	13
48	.733765	3.27	.924572	1.35	.809193	4.63	.190807	12
49	.733961	3.27	.924491	1.37	.809471	4.62	.190529	11
50	.734157	3.27	.924409	1.35	.809748	4.62	.190252	10
51	9.734353	3.27	9.924328	1.37	9.810025	4.62	10.189975	9
52	.734549	3.25	.924246	1.37	.810302	4.63	.189698	8
53	.734744	3.25	.924164	1.35	.810580	4.62	.189420	7
54	.734939	3.27	.924083	1.37	.810857	4.62	.189143	6
55	.735135	3.25	.924001	1.37	.811134	4.60	.188866	5
56	.735330	3.25	.923919	1.37	.811410	4.62	.188590	4
57	.735525	3.23	.923837	1.37	.811687	4.62	.188313	3
58	.735719	3.25	.923755	1.37	.811964	4.62	.188036	2
59	.735914	3.25	.923673	1.37	.812241	4.60	.187759	1
60	9.736109		9.923591		9.812517		10.187483	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	9.736109	3.23	9.923591	1.37	9.812517	4.62	10.187483	60
1	.736303	3.25	.923509	1.37	.812794	4.60	.187206	59
2	.736498	3.23	.923427	1.37	.813070	4.62	.186930	58
3	.736692	3.23	.923345	1.37	.813347	4.60	.186653	57
4	.736886	3.23	.923263	1.37	.813623	4.60	.186377	56
5	.737080	3.23	.923181	1.38	.813899	4.62	.186101	55
6	.737274	3.22	.923098	1.37	.814176	4.60	.185824	54
7	.737467	3.23	.923016	1.38	.814452	4.60	.185548	53
8	.737661	3.23	.922933	1.37	.814728	4.60	.185272	52
9	.737855	3.22	.922851	1.38	.815004	4.60	.184996	51
10	.738048	3.22	.922768	1.37	.815280	4.58	.184720	50
11	9.738241	3.22	9.922686	1.38	9.815555	4.60	10.184445	49
12	.738434	3.22	.922603	1.38	.815831	4.60	.184169	48
13	.738627	3.22	.922520	1.37	.816107	4.58	.183893	47
14	.738820	3.22	.922438	1.38	.816382	4.60	.183618	46
15	.739013	3.22	.922355	1.38	.816658	4.58	.183342	45
16	.739206	3.20	.922272	1.38	.816933	4.60	.183067	44
17	.739398	3.20	.922189	1.38	.817209	4.58	.182791	43
18	.739590	3.22	.922106	1.38	.817484	4.58	.182516	42
19	.739783	3.20	.922023	1.38	.817759	4.60	.182241	41
20	.739975	3.20	.921940	1.38	.818035	4.58	.181965	40
21	9.740167	3.20	9.921857	1.38	9.818310	4.58	10.181690	39
22	.740359	3.18	.921774	1.38	.818585	4.58	.181415	38
23	.740550	3.20	.921691	1.40	.818860	4.58	.181140	37
24	.740742	3.20	.921607	1.38	.819135	4.58	.180865	36
25	.740934	3.18	.921524	1.38	.819410	4.57	.180590	35
26	.741125	3.18	.921441	1.40	.819684	4.58	.180316	34
27	.741316	3.20	.921357	1.38	.819959	4.58	.180041	33
28	.741508	3.18	.921274	1.40	.820234	4.57	.179766	32
29	.741699	3.17	.921190	1.38	.820508	4.58	.179492	31
30	.741889	3.18	.921107	1.40	.820783	4.57	.179217	30
31	9.742080	3.18	9.921023	1.40	9.821057	4.58	10.178943	29
32	.742271	3.18	.920939	1.38	.821332	4.57	.178668	28
33	.742462	3.17	.920856	1.40	.821606	4.57	.178394	27
34	.742652	3.17	.920772	1.40	.821880	4.57	.178120	26
35	.742842	3.18	.920688	1.40	.822154	4.58	.177846	25
36	.743033	3.17	.920604	1.40	.822429	4.57	.177571	24
37	.743223	3.17	.920520	1.40	.822703	4.57	.177297	23
38	.743413	3.15	.920436	1.40	.822977	4.57	.177023	22
39	.743602	3.17	.920352	1.40	.823251	4.55	.176749	21
40	.743792	3.17	.920268	1.40	.823524	4.57	.176476	20
41	9.743982	3.15	9.920184	1.42	9.823798	4.57	10.176202	19
42	.744171	3.17	.920099	1.40	.824072	4.55	.175928	18
43	.744361	3.15	.920015	1.40	.824345	4.57	.175655	17
44	.744550	3.15	.919931	1.42	.824619	4.57	.175381	16
45	.744739	3.15	.919846	1.40	.824893	4.55	.175107	15
46	.744928	3.15	.919762	1.42	.825166	4.55	.174834	14
47	.745117	3.15	.919677	1.40	.825439	4.57	.174561	13
48	.745306	3.13	.919593	1.42	.825713	4.55	.174287	12
49	.745494	3.15	.919508	1.40	.825986	4.55	.174014	11
50	.745683	3.13	.919424	1.42	.826259	4.55	.173741	10
51	9.745871	3.15	9.919339	1.42	9.826532	4.55	10.173468	9
52	.746060	3.13	.919254	1.42	.826805	4.55	.173195	8
53	.746248	3.13	.919169	1.40	.827078	4.55	.172922	7
54	.746436	3.13	.919085	1.42	.827351	4.55	.172649	6
55	.746624	3.13	.919000	1.42	.827624	4.55	.172376	5
56	.746812	3.12	.918915	1.42	.827897	4.55	.172103	4
57	.746999	3.13	.918830	1.42	.828170	4.53	.171830	3
58	.747187	3.12	.918745	1.43	.828442	4.55	.171558	2
59	.747374	3.13	.918659	1.42	.828715	4.53	.171285	1
60	9.747562		9.918574		9.828987		10.171013	0
′	*Cosine.*	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	9.747563	3.12	9.918574	1.42	9.828987	4.55	10.171013	60
1	.747749	3.12	.918489	1.42	.829260	4.53	.170740	59
2	.747936	3.12	.918404	1.43	.829532	4.55	.170468	58
3	.748123	3.12	.918318	1.42	.829805	4.53	.170195	57
4	.748310	3.12	.918233	1.43	.830077	4.53	.169923	56
5	.748497	3.10	.918147	1.42	.830349	4.53	.169651	55
6	.748683	3.12	.918062	1.43	.830621	4.53	.169379	54
7	.748870	3.10	.917976	1.42	.830893	4.53	.169107	53
8	.749056	3.12	.917891	1.43	.831165	4.53	.168835	52
9	.749243	3.10	.917805	1.43	.831437	4.53	.168563	51
10	.749429	3.10	.917719	1.42	.831709	4.53	.168291	50
11	9.749615	3.10	9.917634	1.43	9.831981	4.53	10.168019	49
12	.749801	3.10	.917548	1.43	.832253	4.53	.167747	48
13	.749987	3.08	.917462	1.43	.832525	4.52	.167475	47
14	.750172	3.10	.917376	1.43	.832796	4.53	.167204	46
15	.750358	3.08	.917290	1.43	.833068	4.52	.166932	45
16	.750543	3.10	.917204	1.43	.833339	4.53	.166661	44
17	.750729	3.08	.917118	1.43	.833611	4.52	.166389	43
18	.750914	3.08	.917032	1.43	.833882	4.53	.166118	42
19	.751099	3.08	.916946	1.45	.834154	4.52	.165846	41
20	.751284	3.08	.916859	1.43	.834425	4.52	.165575	40
21	9.751469	3.08	9.916773	1.43	9.834696	4.52	10.165304	39
22	.751654	3.08	.916687	1.45	.834967	4.52	.165033	38
23	.751839	3.07	.916600	1.43	.835238	4.52	.164762	37
24	.752023	3.08	.916514	1.45	.835509	4.52	.164491	36
25	.752208	3.07	.916427	1.43	.835780	4.52	.164220	35
26	.752392	3.07	.916341	1.45	.836051	4.52	.163949	34
27	.752576	3.07	.916254	1.45	.836322	4.52	.163678	33
28	.752760	3.07	.916167	1.43	.836593	4.52	.163407	32
29	.752944	3.07	.916081	1.45	.836864	4.50	.163136	31
30	.753128	3.07	.915994	1.45	.837134	4.52	.162866	30
31	9.753312	3.05	9.915907	1.45	9.837405	4.50	10.162595	29
32	.753495	3.07	.915820	1.45	.837675	4.52	.162325	28
33	.753679	3.07	.915733	1.45	.837946	4.50	.162054	27
34	.753862	3.07	.915646	1.45	.838216	4.52	.161784	26
5	.754046	3.05	.915559	1.45	.838487	4.50	.161513	25
6	.754229	3.05	.915472	1.45	.838757	4.50	.161243	24
7	.754412	3.05	.915385	1.47	.839027	4.50	.160973	23
	.754595	3.05	.915297	1.45	.839297	4.52	.160703	22
	.754778	3.03	.915210	1.45	.839568	4.50	.160432	21
	.754960	3.05	.915123	1.47	.839838	4.50	.160162	20
	9.755143	3.05	9.915035	1.45	9.840108	4.50	10.159892	19
	.755326	3.03	.914948	1.47	.840378	4.50	.159622	18
	.755508	3.03	.914860	1.45	.840648	4.48	.159352	17
	.755690	3.03	.914773	1.47	.840917	4.50	.159083	16
	.755872	3.03	.914685	1.45	.841187	4.50	.158813	15
	.756054	3.03	.914598	1.47	.841457	4.50	.158543	14
	.756236	3.03	.914510	1.47	.841727	4.48	.158273	13
	.756418	3.03	.914422	1.47	.841996	4.50	.158004	12
	.756600	3.03	.914334	1.47	.842266	4.48	.157734	11
	.756782	3.02	.914246	1.47	.842535	4.50	.157465	10
	9.756963	3.02	9.914158	1.47	9.842805	4.48	10.157195	9
	.757144	3 03	.914070	1.47	.843074	4.48	156926	8
	.757326	3.02	.913982	1.47	.843343	4.48	.156657	7
	.757507	3.02	.913894	1.47	.843612	4.50	.156388	6
	.757688	3 02	.913806	1.47	.843882	4.48	.156118	5
	.757869	3.02	.913718	1.47	.844151	4.48	.155849	4
	.758050	3.00	.913630	1.48	.844420	4.48	.155580	3
	.758230	3.02	913541	1.47	.844689	4.48	.155311	2
	.758411	3.00	.913453	1.47	.844958	4.48	.155042	1
	.758591		9.913365		9.845227		10.154773	0
	osine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	9.758591	3.02	9.913365	1.48	9.845227	4.48	10.154773	60
1	.758772	3.00	.913276	1.48	.845496	4.47	.154504	59
2	.758952	3.00	.913187	1.47	.845764	4.48	.154236	58
3	.759132	3.00	.913099	1.48	.846033	4.48	.153967	57
4	.759312	3.00	.913010	1.47	.846302	4.47	.153698	56
5	.759492	3.00	.912922	1.48	.846570	4.48	.153430	55
6	.759672	3.00	.912833	1.48	.846839	4.48	.153161	54
7	.759852	2.98	.912744	1.48	.847108	4.47	.152892	53
8	.760031	3.00	.912655	1.48	.847376	4.47	.152624	52
9	.760211	2.98	.912566	1.48	.847644	4.48	.152356	51
10	.760390	2.98	.912477	1.48	.847913	4.47	.152087	50
11	9.760569	2.98	9.912388	1.43	9.848181	4.47	10.151819	49
12	.760748	2.98	.912299	1.48	.848449	4.47	.151551	48
13	.760927	2.98	.912210	1.48	.848717	4.48	.151283	47
14	.761106	2.98	.912121	1.50	.848986	4.47	.151014	46
15	.761285	2.98	.912031	1.48	.849254	4.47	.150746	45
16	.761464	2.97	.911942	1.48	.849522	4.47	.150478	44
17	.761642	2.98	.911853	1.50	.849790	4.45	.150210	43
18	.761821	2.97	.911763	1.48	.850057	4.47	.149943	42
19	.761999	2.97	.911674	1.50	.850325	4.47	.149675	41
20	.762177	2.98	.911584	1.48	.850593	4.47	.149407	40
21	9.762356	2.97	9.911495	1.50	9.850861	4.47	10.149139	39
22	.762534	2.97	.911405	1.50	.851129	4.45	.148871	38
23	.762712	2.95	.911315	1.48	.851396	4.47	.148604	37
24	.762889	2.97	.911226	1.50	.851664	4.45	.148336	36
25	.763067	2.97	.911136	1.50	.851931	4.47	.148069	35
26	.763245	2.95	.911046	1.50	.852199	4.45	.147801	34
27	.763422	2.97	.910956	1.50	.852466	4.45	.147534	33
28	.763600	2.95	.910866	1.50	.852733	4.47	.147267	32
29	.763777	2.95	.910776	1.50	.853001	4.45	.146999	31
30	.763954	2.95	.910686	1.50	.853268	4.45	.146732	30
31	9.764131	2.95	9.910596	1.50	9.853535	4.45	10.146465	29
32	.764308	2.95	.910506	1.52	.853802	4.45	.146198	28
33	.764485	2.95	.910415	1.50	.854069	4.45	.145931	27
34	.764662	2.93	.910325	1.50	.854336	4.45	.145664	26
35	.764838	2.95	.910235	1.52	.854603	4.45	.145397	25
36	.765015	2.93	.910144	1.50	.854870	4.45	.145130	24
37	.765191	2.93	.910054	1.52	.855137	4.45	.144863	23
38	.765367	2.95	.909963	1.50	.855404	4.45	.144596	22
39	.765544	2.93	.909873	1.52	.855671	4.45	.144329	21
40	.765720	2.93	.909782	1.52	.855938	4.43	.144062	20
41	9.765896	2.93	9.909691	1.50	9.856204	4.45	10.143796	19
42	.766072	2.92	.909601	1.52	.856471	4.43	.143529	18
43	.766247	2.93	.909510	1.52	.856737	4.45	.143263	17
44	.766423	2.92	.909419	1.52	.857004	4.43	.142996	16
45	.766598	2.93	.909328	1.52	.857270	4.45	.142730	15
46	.766774	2.92	.909237	1.52	.857537	4.43	.142463	14
47	.766949	2.92	.909146	1.52	.857803	4.43	.142197	13
48	.767124	2.93	.909055	1.52	.858069	4.45	.141931	12
49	.767300	2.92	.908964	1.52	.858336	4.43	.141664	11
50	.767475	2.90	.908873	1.53	.858602	4.43	.141398	10
51	9.767649	2.92	9.908781	1.52	9.858868	4.43	10.141132	9
52	.767824	2.92	.908690	1.52	.859134	4.43	.140866	8
53	.767999	2.90	.908599	1.53	.859400	4.43	.140600	7
54	.768173	2.92	.908507	1.52	.859666	4.43	.140334	6
55	.768348	2.90	.908416	1.53	.859932	4.43	.140068	5
56	.768522	2.92	.908324	1.52	.860198	4.43	.139802	4
57	.768697	2.90	.908233	1.53	.860464	4.43	.139536	3
58	.768871	2.90	.908141	1.53	.860730	4.42	.139270	2
59	.769045	2.90	.908049	1.52	.860995	4.43	.139005	1
60	9.769219		9.907958		9.861261		10.138739	0
′	*Cosine.*	*D. 1″.*	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	'
9.769219	2.90	9.907958	1.53	9.861261	4.43	10.138739	60
.769393	2.88	.907866	1.53	.861527	4.42	.138473	59
.769566	2.90	.907774	1.53	.861792	4.43	.138208	58
.769740	2.88	.907682	1.53	.862058	4.42	.137942	57
.769913	2.90	.907590	1.53	.862323	4.43	.137677	56
.770087	2.88	.907498	1.53	.862589	4.42	.137411	55
.770260	2.88	.907406	1.53	.862854	4.42	.137146	54
.770433	2.88	.907314	1.53	.863119	4.43	.136881	53
.770606	2.88	.907222	1.55	.863385	4.42	.136615	52
.770779	2.88	.907129	1.53	.863650	4.42	.136350	51
.770952	2.88	.907037	1.53	.863915	4.42	.136085	50
9.771125	2.88	9.906945	1.55	9.864180	4.42	10.135820	49
.771298	2.87	.906852	1.53	.864445	4.42	.135555	48
.771470	2.88	.906760	1.55	.864710	4.42	.135290	47
.771643	2.87	.906667	1.53	.864975	4.42	.135025	46
.771815	2.87	.906575	1.55	.865240	4.42	.134760	45
.771987	2.87	.906482	1.55	.865505	4.42	.134495	44
.772159	2.87	.906389	1.55	.865770	4.42	.134230	43
.772331	2.87	.906296	1.53	.866035	4.42	.133965	42
.772503	2.87	.906204	1.55	.866300	4.40	.133700	41
.772675	2.87	.906111	1.55	.866564	4.42	.133436	40
9.772847	2.85	9.906018	1.55	9.866829	4.42	10.133171	39
.773018	2.87	.905925	1.55	.867094	4.40	.132906	38
.773190	2.85	.905832	1.55	.867358	4.42	.132642	37
.773361	2.87	.905739	1.57	.867623	4.40	.132377	36
.773533	2.85	.905645	1.55	.867887	4.42	.132113	35
.773704	2.85	.905552	1.55	.868152	4.40	.131848	34
.773875	2.85	.905459	1.55	.868416	4.40	.131584	33
.774046	2.85	.905366	1.57	.868680	4.42	.131320	32
.774217	2.85	.905272	1.55	.868945	4.40	.131055	31
.774388	2.83	.905179	1.57	.869209	4.40	.130791	30
.774558	2.85	9.905085	1.55	9.869473	4.40	10.130527	29
.774729	2.83	.904992	1.57	.869737	4.40	.130263	28
.774899	2.85	.904898	1.57	.870001	4.40	.129999	27
.775070	2.83	.904804	1.55	.870265	4.40	.129735	26
.775240	2.83	.904711	1.57	.870529	4.40	.129471	25
.775410	2.83	.904617	1.57	.870793	4.40	.129207	24
775580	2.83	.904523	1.57	.871057	4.40	.128943	23
775750	2.83	.904429	1.57	.871321	4.40	.128679	22
775920	2.83	.904335	1.57	.871585	4.40	.128415	21
776090	2.82	.904241	1.57	.871849	4.38	.128151	20
776259	2.83	9.904147	1.57	9.872112	4.40	10.127888	19
76429	2.82	.904053	1.57	.872376	4.40	.127624	18
76598	2.83	.903959	1.58	.872640	4.38	.127360	17
76768	2.82	.903864	1.57	.872903	4.40	.127097	16
76937	2.82	.903770	1.57	.873167	4.38	.126833	15
77106	2.82	.903676	1.58	.873430	4.40	.126570	14
77275	2.82	.903581	1.57	.873694	4.38	.126306	13
7444	2.82	.903487	1.58	.873957	4.38	.126043	12
7613	2.80	.903392	1.57	.874220	4.40	.125780	11
7781	2.82	.903298	1.58	.874484	4.38	.125516	10
950	2.82	9.903203	1.58	9.874747	4.38	10.125253	9
119	2.80	.903108	1.57	.875010	4.38	.124990	8
287	2.80	.903014	1.58	.875273	4.40	.124727	7
455	2.82	.902919	1.58	.875537	4.38	.124463	6
24	2.80	.902824	1.58	.875800	4.38	.124200	5
92	2.80	.902729	1.58	.876063	4.38	.123937	4
60	2.80	.902634	1.58	.876326	4.38	.123674	3
28	2.78	.902539	1.58	.876589	4.38	.123411	2
95	2.80	.902444	1.58	.876852	4.37	.123148	1
3		9.902349		9.877114		10.122886	0
.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	'

TABLE XVIII.—LOGARITHMIC SINES.

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.
0	9.779463	2.80	9.902349	1.60	9.877114	4.38	10.122886
1	.779631	2.78	.902253	1.58	.877377	4.38	.122623
2	.779798	2.80	.902158	1.58	.877640	4.38	.122360
3	.779966	2.78	.902063	1.60	.877903	4.37	.122097
4	.780133	2.78	.901967	1.58	.878165	4.38	.121835
5	.780300	2.78	.901872	1.60	.878428	4.38	.121572
6	.780467	2.78	.901776	1.58	.878691	4.37	.121309
7	.780634	2.78	.901681	1.60	.878953	4.38	.121047
8	.780801	2.78	.901585	1.58	.879216	4.37	.120784
9	.780968	2.77	.901490	1.60	.879478	4.38	.120522
10	.781134	2.78	.901394	1.60	.879741	4.37	.120259
11	9.781301	2.78	9.901298	1.60	9.880003	4.37	10.119997
12	.781468	2.77	.901202	1.60	.880265	4.38	.119735
13	.781634	2.77	.901106	1.60	.880528	4.37	.119472
14	.781800	2.77	.901010	1.60	.880790	4.37	.119210
15	.781966	2.77	.900914	1.60	.881052	4.37	.118948
16	.782132	2.77	.900818	1.60	.881314	4.38	.118686
17	.782298	2.77	.900722	1.60	.881577	4.37	.118423
18	.782464	2.77	.900626	1.62	.881839	4.37	.118161
19	.782630	2.77	.900529	1.60	.882101	4.37	.117899
20	.782796	2.75	.900433	1.60	.882363	4.37	.117637
21	9.782961	2.77	9.900337	1.62	9.882625	4.37	10.117375
22	.783127	2.75	.900240	1.60	.882887	4.35	.117113
23	.783292	2.77	.900144	1.62	.883148	4.37	.116852
24	.783458	2.75	.900047	1.60	.883410	4.37	.116590
25	.783623	2.75	.899951	1.62	.883672	4.37	.116328
26	.783788	2.75	.899854	1.62	.883934	4.37	.116066
27	.783953	2.75	.899757	1.62	.884196	4.35	.115804
28	.784118	2.73	.899660	1.60	.884457	4.37	.115543
29	.784282	2.75	.899564	1.62	.884719	4.35	.115281
30	.784447	2.75	.899467	1.62	.884980	4.37	.115020
31	9.784612	2.73	9.899370	1.62	9.885242	4.37	10.114758
32	.784776	2.75	.899273	1.62	.885504	4.35	.114496
33	.784941	2.73	.899176	1.63	.885765	4.35	.114235
34	.785105	2.73	.899078	1.62	.886026	4.37	.113974
35	.785269	2.73	.898981	1.62	.886288	4.35	.113712
36	.785433	2.73	.898884	1.62	.886549	4.37	.113451
37	.785597	2.73	.898787	1.63	.886811	4.35	.113189
38	.785761	2.73	.898689	1.62	.887072	4.35	.112928
39	.785925	2.73	.898592	1.63	.887333	4.35	.112667
40	.786089	2.72	.898494	1.62	.887594	4.35	.112406
41	9.786252	2.73	9.898397	1.63	9.887855	4.35	10.112145
42	.786416	2.72	.898299	1.62	.888116	4.37	.111884
43	.786579	2.72	.898202	1.63	.888378	4.35	.111622
44	.786742	2.73	.898104	1.63	.888639	4.35	.111361
45	.786906	2.72	.898006	1.63	.888900	4.35	.111100
46	.787069	2.72	.897908	1.63	.889161	4.33	.110839
47	.787232	2.72	.897810	1.63	.889421	4.35	.110579
48	.787395	2.70	.897712	1.63	.889682	4.35	.110318
49	.787557	2.72	.897614	1.63	.889943	4.35	.110057
50	.787720	2.72	.897516	1.63	.890204	4.35	.109796
51	9.787883	2.70	9.897418	1.63	9.890465	4.33	10.109535
52	.788045	2.72	.897320	1.63	.890725	4.35	.109275
53	.788208	2.70	.897222	1.65	.890986	4.35	.109014
54	.788370	2.70	.897123	1.63	.891247	4.33	.108753
55	.788532	2.70	.897025	1.65	.891507	4.35	.108493
56	.788694	2.70	.896926	1.63	.891768	4.33	.108232
57	.788856	2.70	.896828	1.65	.892028	4.35	.107972
58	.789018	2.70	.896729	1.63	.892289	4.33	.107711
59	.789180	2.70	.896631	1.65	.892549	4.35	.107451
60	9.789342		9.896532		9.892810		10.107190
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.

Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
9.789342	2.70	9.896532	1.65	9.892810	4.33	10.107190	60
.789504	2.68	.896433	1.68	.893070	4.35	.106930	59
.789665	2.70	.896335	1.65	.893331	4.33	.106669	58
.789827	2.68	.896236	1.65	.893591	4.33	.106409	57
.789988	2.68	.896137	1.65	.893851	4.33	.106149	56
.790149	2.68	.896038	1.65	.894111	4.35	.105889	55
.790310	2.68	.895939	1.65	.894372	4.33	.105628	54
.790471	2.68	.895840	1.65	.894632	4.33	.105368	53
.790632	2.68	.895741	1.67	.894892	4.33	.105108	52
.790793	2.68	.895641	1.65	.895152	4.33	.104848	51
.790954	2.68	.895542	1.65	.895412	4.23	.104588	50
9.791115	2.67	9.895443	1.67	9.895672	4.33	10.104328	49
.791275	2.68	.895343	1.65	.895932	4.33	.104068	48
.791436	2.67	.895244	1.65	.896192	4.33	.103808	47
.791596	2.68	.895145	1.67	.896452	4.33	.103548	46
.791757	2.67	.895045	1.67	.896712	4.32	.103288	45
.791917	2.67	.894945	1.65	.896971	4.33	.103029	44
.792077	2.67	.894846	1.67	.897231	4.33	.102769	43
.792237	2.67	.894746	1.67	.897491	4.33	.102509	42
.792397	2.67	.894646	1.67	.897751	4.32	.102249	41
.792557	2.65	.894546	1.67	.898010	4.33	.101990	40
9.792716	2.67	9.894446	1.67	9.898270	4.33	10.101730	39
.792876	2.65	.894346	1.67	.898530	4.32	.101470	38
.793035	2.67	.894246	1.67	.898789	4.33	.101211	37
.793195	2.65	.894146	1.67	.899049	4.32	.100951	36
.793354	2.67	.894046	1.67	.899308	4.33	.100692	35
.793514	2.65	.893946	1.67	.899568	4.32	.100432	34
.793673	2.65	.893846	1.68	.899827	4.33	.100173	33
.793832	2.65	.893745	1.67	.900087	4.32	.099913	32
.793991	2.65	.893645	1.68	.900346	4.32	.099654	31
.794150	2.63	.893544	1.67	.900605	4.32	.099395	30
9.794308	2.65	9.893444	1.68	9.900864	4.33	10.099136	29
.794467	2.65	.893343	1.67	.901124	4.32	.098876	28
.794626	2.63	.893243	1.68	.901383	4.32	.098617	27
.794784	2.63	.893142	1.68	.901642	4.32	.098358	26
.794942	2.65	.893041	1.68	.901901	4.32	.098099	25
.795101	2.63	.892940	1.68	.902160	4.33	.097840	24
.795259	2.63	.892839	1.67	.902420	4.32	.097580	23
.795417	2.63	.892739	1.68	.902679	4.22	.097321	22
.795575	2.63	.892638	1.70	.902938	4.32	.097062	21
.795733	2.63	.892536	1.68	.903197	4.32	.096803	20
9.795891	2.63	9.892435	1.68	9.903456	4.30	10.096544	19
.796049	2.62	.892334	1.68	.903714	4.32	.096286	18
.796206	2.63	.892233	1.68	.903973	4.32	.096027	17
.796364	2.62	.892132	1.70	.904232	4.32	.095768	16
.796521	2.63	.892030	1.68	.904491	4.32	.095509	15
.796679	2.62	.891929	1.70	.904750	4.30	.095250	14
.796836	2.62	.891827	1.68	.905008	4.32	.094992	13
.796993	2.62	.891726	1.70	.905267	4.32	.094733	12
.797150	2.62	.891624	1.68	.905526	4.32	.094474	11
.797307	2.62	.891523	1.70	.905785	4.30	.094215	10
9.797464	2.62	9.891421	1.70	9.906043	4.32	10.093957	9
.797621	2.60	.891319	1.70	.906302	4.30	.093698	8
.797777	2.62	.891217	1.70	.906560	4.32	.093440	7
.797934	2.62	.891115	1.70	.906819	4.30	.093181	6
.798091	2.60	.891013	1.70	.907077	4.32	.092923	5
.798247	2.60	.890911	1.70	.907336	4.30	.092664	4
.798403	2.62	.890809	1.70	.907594	4.22	.092406	3
.798560	2.60	.890707	1.70	.907853	4.30	.092147	2
.798716	2.60	.890605	1.70	.908111	4.30	.091889	1
9.798872		9.890503		9.908369		10.091631	0
Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	′
0	9.798872	2.60	9.890503	1.72	9.908369	4.32	10.091631	60
1	.799028	2.60	.890400	1.70	.908628	4.30	.091372	59
2	.799184	2.58	.890298	1.72	.908886	4.30	.091114	58
3	.799339	2.60	.890195	1.70	.909144	4.30	.090856	57
4	.799495	2.60	.890093	1.72	.909402	4.30	.090598	56
5	.799651	2.58	.889990	1.70	.909660	4.30	.090340	55
6	.799806	2.60	.889888	1.72	.909918	4.32	.090082	54
7	.799962	2.58	.889785	1.72	.910177	4.30	.089823	53
8	.800117	2.58	.889682	1.72	.910435	4.30	.089565	52
9	.800272	2.58	.889579	1.70	.910693	4.30	.089307	51
10	.800427	2.58	.889477	1.72	.910951	4.30	.089049	50
11	9.800582	2.58	9.889374	1.72	9.911209	4.30	10.088791	49
12	.800737	2.58	.889271	1.72	.911467	4.30	.088533	48
13	.800892	2.58	.889168	1.73	.911725	4.28	.088275	47
14	.801047	2.57	.889064	1.72	.911982	4.30	.088018	46
15	.801201	2.58	.888961	1.72	.912240	4.30	.087760	45
16	.801356	2.58	.888858	1.72	.912498	4.30	.087502	44
17	.801511	2.57	.888755	1.73	.912756	4.30	.087244	43
18	.801665	2.57	.888651	1.72	.913014	4.28	.086986	42
19	.801819	2.57	.888548	1.73	.913271	4.30	.086729	41
20	.801973	2.58	.888444	1.72	.913529	4.30	.086471	40
21	9.802128	2.57	9.888341	1.73	9.913787	4.28	10.086213	39
22	.802282	2.57	.888237	1.72	.914044	4.30	.085956	38
23	.802436	2.55	.888134	1.73	.914302	4.30	.085698	37
24	.802589	2.57	.888030	1.73	.914560	4.28	.085440	36
25	.802743	2.57	.887926	1.73	.914817	4.30	.085183	35
26	.802897	2.55	.887822	1.73	.915075	4.28	.084925	34
27	.803050	2.57	.887718	1.73	.915332	4.30	.084668	33
28	.803204	2.55	.887614	1.73	.915590	4.28	.084410	32
29	.803357	2.57	.887510	1.73	.915847	4.28	.084153	31
30	.803511	2.55	.887406	1.73	.916104	4.30	.083896	30
31	9.803664	2.55	9.887302	1.73	9.916362	4.28	10.083638	29
32	.803817	2.55	.887198	1.75	.916619	4.30	.083381	28
33	.803970	2.55	.887093	1.73	.916877	4.28	.083123	27
34	.804123	2.55	.886989	1.73	.917134	4.28	.082866	26
35	.804276	2.55	.886885	1.75	.917391	4.28	.082609	25
36	.804428	2.55	.886780	1.73	.917648	4.30	.082352	24
37	.804581	2.55	.886676	1.75	.917906	4.28	.082094	23
38	.804734	2.53	.886571	1.75	.918163	4.28	.081837	22
39	.804886	2.55	.886466	1.73	.918420	4.28	.081580	21
40	.805039	2.53	.886362	1.75	.918677	4.28	.081323	20
41	9.805191	2.53	9.886257	1.75	9.918934	4.28	10.081066	19
42	.805343	2.53	.886152	1.75	.919191	4.28	.080809	18
43	.805495	2.53	.886047	1.75	.919448	4.28	.080552	17
44	.805647	2.53	.885942	1.75	.919705	4.28	.080295	16
45	.805799	2.53	.885837	1.75	.919962	4.28	.080038	15
46	.805951	2.53	.885732	1.75	.920219	4.28	.079781	14
47	.806103	2.52	.885627	1.75	.920476	4.28	.079524	13
48	.806254	2.53	.885522	1.77	.920733	4.28	.079267	12
49	.806406	2.52	.885416	1.75	.920990	4.28	.079010	11
50	.806557	2.53	.885311	1.77	.921247	4.27	.078753	10
51	9.806709	2.52	9.885205	1.75	9.921503	4.28	10.078497	9
52	.806860	2.52	.885100	1.77	.921760	4.28	.078240	8
53	.807011	2.53	.884994	1.75	.922017	4.28	.077983	7
54	.807163	2.52	.884889	1.77	.922274	4.27	.077726	6
55	.807314	2.52	.884783	1.77	.922530	4.28	.077470	5
56	.807465	2.50	.884677	1.75	.922787	4.28	.077213	4
57	.807615	2.52	.884572	1.77	.923044	4.27	.076956	3
58	.807766	2.52	.884466	1.77	.923300	4.28	.076700	2
59	.807917	2.50	.884360	1.77	.923557	4.28	.076443	1
60	9.808067		9.884254		9.923814		10.076186	0
′	*Cosine.*	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	
9.808067	2.52	9.884254	1.77	9.923814	4.27	10.076186	60
.808218	2.50	.884148	1.77	.924070	4.28	.075930	59
.808368	2.52	.884042	1.77	.924327	4.27	.075673	58
.808519	2.50	.883936	1.78	.924583	4.28	.075417	57
.808669	2.50	.883829	1.77	.924840	4.27	.075160	56
.808819	2.50	.883723	1.77	.925096	4.27	.074904	55
.808969	2.50	.883617	1.78	.925352	4.28	.074648	54
.809119	2.50	.883510	1.77	.925609	4.27	.074391	53
.809269	2.50	.883404	1.78	.925865	4.28	.074135	52
.809419	2.50	.883297	1.77	.926122	4.27	.073878	51
.809569	2.48	.883191	1.78	.926378	4.27	.073622	50
9.809718	2.50	9.883084	1.78	9.926634	4.27	10.073366	49
.809868	2.48	.882977	1.77	.926890	4.28	.073110	48
.810017	2.50	.882871	1.78	.927147	4.27	.072853	47
.810167	2.48	.882764	1.78	.927403	4.27	.072597	46
.810316	2.48	.882657	1.78	.927659	4.27	.072341	45
.810465	2.48	.882550	1.78	.927915	4.27	.072085	44
.810614	2.48	.882443	1.78	.928171	4.27	.071829	43
.810763	2.48	.882336	1.78	.928427	4.28	.071573	42
.810912	2.48	.882229	1.80	.928684	4.27	.071316	41
.811061	2.48	.882121	1.78	.928940	4.27	.071060	40
9.811210	2.47	9.882014	1.78	9.929196	4.27	10.070804	39
.811358	2.48	.881907	1.80	.929452	4.27	.070548	38
.811507	2.47	.881799	1.78	.929708	4.27	.070292	37
.811655	2.48	.881692	1.80	.929964	4.27	.070036	36
.811804	2.47	.881584	1.78	.930220	4.25	.069780	35
.811952	2.47	.881477	1.80	.930475	4.27	.069525	34
.812100	2.47	.881369	1.80	.930731	4.27	.069269	33
.812248	2.47	.881261	1.80	.930987	4.27	.069013	32
.812396	2.47	.881153	1.78	.931243	4.27	.068757	31
.812544	2.47	.881046	1.80	.931499	4.27	.068501	30
9.812692	2.47	9.880938	1.80	9.931755	4.25	10.068245	29
.812840	2.47	.880830	1.80	.932010	4.27	.067990	28
.812988	2.45	.880722	1.82	.932266	4.27	.067734	27
.813135	2.47	.880613	1.80	.932522	4.27	.067478	26
.813283	2.45	.880505	1.80	.932778	4.25	.067222	25
.813430	2.47	.880397	1.80	.933033	4.27	.066967	24
.813578	2.45	.880289	1.82	.933289	4.27	.066711	23
.813725	2.45	.880180	1.80	.933545	4.25	.066455	22
.813872	2.45	.880072	1.82	.933800	4.27	.066200	21
.814019	2.45	.879963	1.80	.934056	4.25	.065944	20
9.814166	2.45	9.879855	1.82	9.934311	4.27	10.065689	19
.814313	2.45	.879746	1.82	.934567	4.25	.065433	18
.814460	2.45	.879637	1.80	.934822	4.27	.065178	17
.814607	2.43	.879529	1.82	.935078	4.25	.064922	16
.814753	2.45	.879420	1.82	.935333	4.27	.064667	15
.814900	2.43	.879311	1.82	.935589	4.25	.064411	14
.815046	2.45	.879202	1.82	.935844	4.27	.064156	13
.815193	2.43	.879093	1.82	.936100	4.25	.063900	12
.815339	2.43	.878984	1.82	.936355	4.27	.063645	11
.815485	2.45	.878875	1.82	.936611	4.25	.063389	10
9.815632	2.43	9.878766	1.83	9.936866	4.25	10.063134	9
.815778	2.43	.878656	1.82	.937121	4.27	.062879	8
.815924	2.42	.878547	1.82	.937377	4.25	.062623	7
.816069	2.43	.878438	1.83	.937632	4.25	.062368	6
.816215	2.43	.878328	1.82	.937887	4.25	.062113	5
.816361	2.43	.878219	1.83	.938142	4.27	.061858	4
.816507	2.42	.878109	1.83	.938398	4.25	.061602	3
.816652	2.43	.877999	1.82	.938653	4.25	.061347	2
.816798	2.42	.877890	1.83	.938908	4.25	.061092	1
9.816943		9.877780		9.939163		10.060837	0
Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	'

′	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Tang.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	
0	9.816943	2.42	9.877780	1.83	9.939163	4.25	10.060837	
1	.817088	2.42	.877670	1.83	.939418	4.25	.060582	
2	.817233	2.43	.877560	1.83	.939673	4.25	.060327	
3	.817379	2.42	.877450	1.83	.939928	4.25	.060072	
4	.817524	2.40	.877340	1.83	.940183	4.27	.059817	
5	.817668	2.42	.877230	1.83	.940439	4.25	.059561	
6	.817813	2.42	.877120	1.83	.940694	4.25	.059306	
7	.817958	2.42	.877010	1.85	.940949	4.25	.059051	
8	.818103	2.40	.876899	1.83	.941204	4.25	.058796	
9	.818247	2.42	.876789	1.85	.941459	4.23	.058541	
10	.818392	2.40	.876678	1.83	.941713	4.25	.058287	
11	9.818536	2.42	9.876568	1.85	9.941968	4.25	10.058032	
12	.818681	2.40	.876457	1.83	.942223	4.25	.057777	
13	.818825	2.40	.876347	1.85	.942478	4.25	.057522	
14	.818969	2.40	.876236	1.85	.942733	4.25	.057267	
15	.819113	2.40	.876125	1.85	.942988	4.25	.057012	
16	.819257	2.40	.876014	1.83	.943243	4.25	.056757	
17	.819401	2.40	.875904	1.85	.943498	4.23	.056502	
18	.819545	2.40	.875793	1.85	.943752	4.25	.056248	
19	.819689	2.38	.875682	1.85	.944007	4.25	.055993	
20	.819832	2.40	.875571	1.87	.944262	4.25	.055738	
21	9.819976	2.40	9.875459	1.85	9.944517	4.23	10.055483	
22	.820120	2.38	.875348	1.85	.944771	4.25	.055229	
23	.820263	2.38	.875237	1.85	.945026	4.25	.054974	
24	.820406	2.40	.875126	1.87	.945281	4.23	.054719	
25	.820550	2.38	.875014	1.85	.945535	4.25	.054465	
26	.820693	2.38	.874903	1.87	.945790	4.25	.054210	
27	.820836	2.38	.874791	1.85	.946045	4.23	.053955	
28	.820979	2.38	.874680	1.87	.946299	4.25	.053701	
29	.821122	2.38	.874568	1.87	.946554	4.23	.053446	
30	.821265	2.37	.874456	1.87	.946808	4.25	.053192	
31	9.821407	2.38	9.874344	1.87	9.947063	4.25	10.052937	
32	.821550	2.38	.874232	1.85	.947318	4.23	.052682	
33	.821693	2.37	.874121	1.87	.947572	4.25	.052428	
34	.821835	2.37	.874009	1.88	.947827	4.23	.052173	
35	.821977	2.38	.873896	1.87	.948081	4.23	.051919	
36	.822120	2.37	.873784	1.87	.948335	4.25	.051665	
37	.822262	2.37	.873672	1.87	.948590	4.23	.051410	
38	.822404	2.37	.873560	1.87	.948844	4.25	.051156	
39	.822546	2.37	.873448	1.88	.949099	4.23	.050901	
40	.822688	2.37	.873335	1.87	.949353	4.25	.050647	
41	9.822830	2.37	9.873223	1.88	9.949608	4.23	10.050392	
42	.822972	2.37	.873110	1.87	.949862	4.23	.050138	
43	.823114	2.35	.872998	1.88	.950116	4.25	.049884	
44	.823255	2.37	.872885	1.88	.950371	4.23	.049629	
45	.823397	2.37	.872772	1.88	.950625	4.23	.049375	
46	.823539	2.35	.872659	1.87	.950879	4.23	.049121	
47	.823680	2.35	.872547	1.88	.951133	4.25	.048867	
48	.823821	2.37	.872434	1.88	.951388	4.23	.048612	
49	.823963	2.35	.872321	1.88	.951642	4.23	.048358	
50	.824104	2.35	.872208	1.88	.951896	4.23	.048104	
51	9.824245	2.35	9.872095	1.90	9.952150	4.25	10.047850	
52	.824386	2.35	.871981	1.88	.952405	4.23	.047595	
53	.824527	2.35	.871868	1.88	.952659	4.23	.047341	
54	.824668	2.33	.871755	1.90	.952913	4.23	.047087	
55	.824808	2.35	.871641	1.88	.953167	4.23	.046833	
56	.824949	2.35	.871528	1.90	.953421	4.23	.046579	
57	.825090	2.33	.871414	1.88	.953675	4.23	.046325	
58	.825230	2.35	.871301	1.90	.9539[illegible]	4.23	.046071	
59	.825371	2.33	.871187	1.90	.95[illegible]	4.23	.045817	
60	9.825511		9.871073		9.954[illegible]		10.045563	
′	Cosine.	D. 1″.	Sine.	D. 1″.	Cotang.	D. 1″.	Tang.	′

Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	'
9.825511	2.33	9.871073	1.88	9.954437	4.23	10.045563	60
.825651	2.33	.870960	1.90	.954691	4.25	.045309	59
.825791	2.33	.870846	1.90	.954946	4.23	.045054	58
.825931	2.33	.870732	1.90	.955200	4.23	.044800	57
.826071	2.33	.870618	1.90	.955454	4.23	.044546	56
.826211	2.33	.870504	1.90	.955708	4.22	.044292	55
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.826631	2.32	.870161	1.90	.956469	4.23	.043531	52
.826770	2.33	.870047	1.90	.956723	4.23	.043277	51
.826910	2.32	.869933	1.92	.956977	4.23	.043023	50
9.827049	2.33	9.869818	1.90	9.957231	4.23	10.042769	49
.827189	2.32	.869704	1.92	.957485	4.23	.042515	48
.827328	2.32	.869589	1.92	.957739	4.23	.042261	47
.827467	2.32	.869474	1.90	.957993	4.23	.042007	46
.827606	2.32	.869360	1.92	.958247	4.22	.041753	45
.827745	2.32	.869245	1.92	.958500	4.23	.041500	44
.827884	2.32	.869130	1.92	.958754	4.23	.041246	43
.828023	2.32	.869015	1.92	.959008	4.23	.040992	42
.828162	2.32	.868900	1.92	.959262	4.23	.040738	41
.828301	2.30	.868785	1.92	.959516	4.22	.040484	40
9.828439	2.32	9.868670	1.92	9.959769	4.23	10.040231	39
.828578	2.30	.868555	1.92	.960023	4.23	.039977	38
.828716	2.32	.868440	1.93	.960277	4.22	.039723	37
.828855	2.30	.868324	1.92	.960530	4.23	.039470	36
.828993	2.30	.868209	1.93	.960784	4.23	.039216	35
.829131	2.30	.868093	1.92	.961038	4.23	.038962	34
.829269	2.30	867978	1.93	.961292	4.22	.038708	33
.829407	2.30	.867862	1.92	.961545	4.23	.038455	32
.829545	2.30	.867747	1.93	.961799	4.22	.038201	31
.829683	2.30	.867631	1.93	.962052	4.23	.037948	30
.829821	2.30	9.867515	1.93	9.962306	4.23	10.037694	29
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.830097	2.28	.867283	1.93	.962813	4.23	.037187	27
.830234	2.30	.867167	1.93	.963067	4.22	.036933	26
.830372	2.28	.867051	1.93	.963320	4.23	.036680	25
.830509	2.28	.866935	1.93	.963574	4.23	.036426	24
830646	2.30	.866819	1.93	.963828	4.22	.036172	23
830784	2.28	.866703	1.95	.964081	4.23	.035919	22
830921	2.28	.866586	1.93	.964335	4.22	.035665	21
831058	2.28	.866470	1.95	.964588	4.23	.035412	20
31195	2.28	9.866353	1.93	9.964842	4.22	10.035158	19
31332	2.28	.866237	1.95	.965095	4.23	.034905	18
31469	2.28	.866120	1.93	.965349	4.22	.034651	17
31606	2.27	.866004	1.95	.965602	4.22	.034398	16
31742	2.28	.865887	1.95	.965855	4.23	.034145	15
1879	2.27	..865770	1.95	.966109	4.22	.033891	14
2015	2.28	.865653	1.95	.966362	4.23	.033638	13
2152	2.27	.865536	1.95	.966616	4.22	.033384	12
2288	2.28	.865419	1.95	.966869	4.23	.033131	11
425	2.27	.865302	1.95	.967123	4.22	.032877	10
561	2.27	9.865185	1.95	9.967376	4.22	10.032624	9
697	2.27	.865068	1.97	.967629	4.23	.032371	8
833	2.27	.864950	1.95	.967883	4.22	.032117	7
969	2.27	.864833	1.95	.968136	4.22	.031864	6
105	2.27	.864716	1.97	.968389	4.23	.031611	5
41	2.27	.864598	1.95	.968643	4.22	.031357	4
77	2.25	.864481	1.97	.968896	4.22	.031104	3
12	2.27	.864363	1.97	.969149	4.23	.030851	2
48	2.25	.864245	1.97	.969403	4.22	.030597	1
3		9.864127		9.969656		10.030344	0
.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	'

′	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.
0	9.833783	2.27	9.864127	1.95	9.969656	4.22	10.030344
1	.833919	2.25	.864010	1.97	.969909	4.22	.030091
2	.834054	2.25	.863892	1.97	.970162	4.23	.029838
3	.834189	2.27	.863774	1.97	.970416	4.22	.029584
4	.834325	2.25	.863656	1.97	.970669	4.22	.029331
5	.834460	2.25	.863538	1.98	.970922	4.22	.029078
6	.834595	2.25	.863419	1.97	.971175	4.23	.028825
7	.834730	2.25	.863301	1.97	.971429	4.22	.028571
8	.834865	2.23	.863183	1.98	.971682	4.22	.028318
9	.834999	2.25	.863064	1.97	.971935	4.22	.028065
10	.835134	2.25	.862946	1.98	.972188	4.22	.027812
11	9.835269	2.23	9.862827	1.97	9.972441	4.23	10.027559
12	.835403	2.25	.862709	1.98	.972695	4.22	.027305
13	.835538	2.23	.862590	1.98	.972948	4.22	.027052
14	.835672	2.25	.862471	1.97	.973201	4.22	.026799
15	.835807	2.23	.862353	1.98	.973454	4.22	.026546
16	.835941	2.23	.862234	1.98	.973707	4.22	.026293
17	.836075	2.23	.862115	1.98	.973960	4.22	.026040
18	.836209	2.23	.861996	1.98	.974213	4.22	.025787
19	.836343	2.23	.861877	1.98	.974466	4.23	.025534
20	.836477	2.23	.861758	2.00	.974720	4.22	.025280
21	9.836611	2.23	9.861638	1.98	9.974973	4.22	10.025027
22	.836745	2.22	.861519	1.98	.975226	4.22	.024774
23	.836878	2.23	.861400	2.00	.975479	4.22	.024521
24	.837012	2.23	.861280	1.98	.975732	4.22	.024268
25	.837146	2.22	.861161	2.00	.975985	4.22	.024015
26	.837279	2.22	.861041	1.98	.976238	4.22	.023762
27	.837412	2.23	.860922	2.00	.976491	4.22	.023509
28	.837546	2.22	.860802	2.00	.976744	4.22	.023256
29	.837679	2.22	.860682	2.00	.976997	4.22	.023003
30	.837812	2.22	.860562	2.00	.977250	4.22	.022750
31	9.837945	2.22	9.860442	2.00	9.977503	4.22	10.022497
32	.838078	2.22	.860322	2.00	.977756	4.22	.022244
33	.838211	2.22	.860202	2.00	.978009	4.22	.021991
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35	.838477	2.22	.859962	2.00	.978515	4.22	.021485
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39	.839007	2.22	.859480	2.00	.979527	4.22	.020473
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41	9.839272	2.20	9.859239	2.00	9.980033	4.22	10.019967
42	.839404	2.20	.859119	2.02	.980286	4.20	.019714
43	.839536	2.20	.858998	2.02	.980538	4.22	.019462
44	.839668	2.20	.858877	2.02	.980791	4.22	.019209
45	.839800	2.20	.858756	2.02	.981044	4.22	.018956
46	.839932	2.20	.858635	2.02	.981297	4.22	.018703
47	.840064	2.20	.858514	2.02	.981550	4.22	.018450
48	.840196	2.20	.858393	2.02	.981803	4.22	.018197
49	.840328	2.18	.858272	2.02	.982056	4.22	.017944
50	.840459	2.20	.858151	2.03	.982309	4.22	.017691
51	9.840591	2.18	9.858029	2.02	9.982562	4.20	10.017438
52	.840722	2.20	.857908	2.03	.982814	4.22	.017186
53	.840854	2.18	.857786	2.02	.983067	4.22	.016933
54	.840985	2.18	.857665	2.03	.983320	4.22	.016680
55	.841116	2.18	.857543	2.02	.983573	4.22	.016427
56	.841247	2.18	.857422	2.03	.983826	4.22	.016174
57	.841378	2.18	.857300	2.03	.984079	4.22	.015921
58	.841509	2.18	.857178	2.03	.984332	4.20	.015668
59	.841640	2.18	.857056	2.03	.984584	4.22	.015416
60	9.841771		9.856934		9.984837		10.015163
′	*Cosine.*	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.

′	Sine.	D. 1".	Cosine.	D. 1".	Tang.	D. 1".	Cotang.	′
0	9.841771	2.18	9.856934	2.03	9.984837	4.22	10.015163	60
1	.841902	2.18	.850812	2.03	.985090	4.22	.014910	59
2	.842033	2.17	.856690	2.03	.985343	4.22	.014657	58
3	.842163	2.18	.856568	2.03	.985596	4.20	.014404	57
4	.842294	2.17	.856446	2.05	.985848	4.22	.014152	56
5	.842424	2.18	.856323	2.08	.986101	4.22	.013899	55
6	.842555	2.17	.856201	2.05	.986354	4.22	.013646	54
7	.842685	2.17	.856078	2.08	.986607	4.22	.013393	53
8	.842815	2.18	.855956	2.05	.986860	4.20	.013140	52
9	.842946	2.17	.855833	2.03	.987112	4.22	.012888	51
10	.843076	2.17	.855711	2.05	.987365	4.22	.012635	50
11	9.843206	2.17	9.855588	2.05	9.987618	4.22	10.012382	49
12	.843336	2.17	.855465	2.05	.987871	4.20	.012129	48
13	.843466	2.15	.855342	2.05	.988123	4.22	.011877	47
14	.843595	2.17	.855219	2.05	.988376	4.22	.011624	46
15	.843725	2.17	.855096	2.05	.988629	4.22	.011371	45
16	.843855	2.15	.854973	2.05	.988882	4.20	.011118	44
17	.843984	2.17	.854850	2.05	.989134	4.22	.010866	43
18	.844114	2.15	.854727	2.07	.989387	4.22	.010613	42
19	.844243	2.15	.854603	2.05	.989640	4.22	.010360	41
20	.844372	2.17	.854480	2.07	.989893	4.20	.010107	40
21	9.844502	2.15	9.854356	2.05	9.990145	4.22	10.009855	39
22	.844631	2.15	.854233	2.07	.990398	4.22	.009602	38
23	.844760	2.15	.854109	2.05	.990651	4.20	.009349	37
24	.844889	2.15	.853986	2.07	.990903	4.22	.009097	36
25	.845018	2.15	.853862	2.07	.991156	4.22	.008844	35
26	.845147	2.15	.853738	2.07	.991409	4.22	.008591	34
27	.845276	2.15	.853614	2.07	.991662	4.20	.008338	33
28	.845405	2.13	.853490	2.07	.991914	4.22	.008086	32
29	.845533	2.15	.853366	2.07	.992167	4.22	.007833	31
30	.845662	2.13	.853242	2.07	.992420	4.20	.007580	30
31	9.845790	2.15	9.853118	2.07	9.992672	4.22	10.007328	29
32	.845919	2.13	.852994	2.08	.992925	4.22	.007075	28
33	.846047	2.13	.852869	2.07	.993178	4.22	.006822	27
34	.846175	2.15	.852745	2.08	.993431	4.20	.006569	26
35	.846304	2.13	.852620	2.07	.993683	4.22	.006317	25
36	.846432	2.13	.852496	2.08	.993936	4.22	.006064	24
37	.846560	2 13	.852371	2.07	.994189	4.20	.005811	23
38	.846688	2 13	.852247	2.08	.994441	4.22	.005559	22
39	.846816	2.13	.852122	2.08	.994694	4.22	.005306	21
40	.846944	2.12	.851997	2.08	.994947	4.20	.005053	20
41	9.847071	2.13	9.851872	2.08	9.995199	4.22	10.004801	19
42	.847199	2.13	.851747	2.08	.995452	4.22	.004548	18
43	.847327	2.12	.851622	2.08	.995705	4.20	.004295	17
44	.847454	2.13	.851497	2.08	.995957	4.22	.004043	16
45	.847582	2.12	.851372	2.10	.996210	4.22	.003790	15
46	.847709	2.12	.851246	2.08	.996463	4.20	.003537	14
47	.847836	2.13	.851121	2.08	.996715	4.22	.003285	13
48	.847964	2.12	.850996	2.10	.996968	4.22	.003032	12
49	.848091	2.12	.850870	2.08	.997221	4.20	.002779	11
50	.848218	2.12	.850745	2.10	.997473	4.22	.002527	10
51	9.848345	2.12	9.850619	2.10	9.997726	4.22	10.002274	9
52	.848472	2.12	.850493	2.08	.997979	4.20	.002021	8
53	.848599	2.12	.850368	2.10	.998231	4.22	.001769	7
54	.848726	2.10	.850242	2.10	.998484	4.22	.001516	6
55	.848852	2.12	.850116	2.10	.998737	4.20	.001263	5
56	.848979	2.12	.849990	2.10	.998989	4.22	.001011	4
57	.849106	2.10	.849864	2.10	.999242	4.22	.000758	3
58	.849232	2.12	.849738	2.12	.999495	4.20	.000505	2
59	.849359	2.10	.849611	2.10	.999747	4.22	.000253	1
60	9.849485		9.849485		10.000000		10.000000	0
′	Cosine.	D. 1".	Sine.	D. 1".	Cotang.	D. 1".	Tang.	′

INDEX

PAGE
ations in leveling notes 237
on, Chromatic 549
ical 549, 553
nt, to give lines for.... 214
ies for plane table..... 577
tal errors, definition of 10
action of............ 12
y in office computa-
ons 370
urveying, limits of error 7
atic Lens............. 549
ient, peg, three
hods................. 597
ients, angles 389
ss 602
y level................ 600
ce 601
ments 581
ee Transit, Level, Compass,
ye-level, Plane-table.)
eral suggestions for.... 581
hod of reversion, prin-
ple of 583
l of.................. 581
rement............... 13
glass slide............ 602
table............... .. 603
it................... .. 604
vel 592
ine................... 111
United States........ 543
and-level............ 571
.... 318
table................ 576
t..................... 563
nt error in chaining... 41
, nautical............ 622
s, dictionary of....... 53
n Ephemeris.......... 622
barometer........... 264
ccuracy in measurement 101
ment of.............. 389
riangulation.......... 199
aic signs of.......375, 378
ation of method of
t squares............ 19
en two lines calculated
i bearings............ 382
on mistakes in reading 97
rison of methods of
suring............... 101
acting with triangles.. 439

ANGLES (*continued*) PAGE
deflection.................. 117
calculation of bearings.... 382
measuring............... 98
method of running transit
lines. 120
numbering limb, quadrant
method............... 75
use in plotting traverses
. 466, 493
direct, use in plotting tra-
verses...............464, 493
determined for office compu-
tations.................. 375
doubling................... 100
errors in measuring......... 104
exterior for transit lines..... 118
fence corner, how to measure 202
five methods of plotting..... 455
general methods of reading.. 68
horizontal, accuracy in
measurement 99
explanation of........... 2
how to turn off.......... 99
measuring, accuracy in.... 99
methods of............ 93
sextant method of...... 578
sources of error in...... 96
suggestions for......... 95
three steps in.......... 563
reading to contour points.. 343
Angles, interior for transit lines 118
interior of polygon, rules for
adding 119
intersection of curves....... 201
keeping track of by watches 203
laying off accurately........ 218
by repetition............ 101
measurements in stadia
surveying............... 309
measuring................ 218
by repetition............ 99
by series................ 100
by tape.................. 64
method of intersection in
locating points 137
methods of plotting......... 459
comparison of........... 461
five methods............ 455
plotting, methods of........ 455
cosine and sine method. 459
latitude and departure
method............ 461

ANGLES, plotting (*continued*) PAGE
- by protractor............ 455
- by three-point problem... 462
- reading.................... 67
  - check by estimating...... 71
  - general methods of....... 68
  - horizontal angles to contour points............ 348
  - either direction from one row of numerals........ 73
  - natural mistakes in....... 71
  - relative importance of limb and vernier....... 68
  - suggestions for........... 96
  - wrong row of numerals.... 71
- reading the limb........... 68
  - common mistakes in...... 69
  - methods illustrated....... 69
- right or left, for transit lines.................... 118
- several taken from same backsight............... 94
- taken right or left.......... 94
- transit line................ 117
- use of, in locating objects... 134
  - in running transit lines.... 120
- vertical, explanation of..... 2
  - measuring.............. 98
    - with sextant........... 579
  - reading to contour points. 343

Angle target................ 572

Angular distances, conversion to bearings............. 378
- definition of............... 378

Angular errors—(see Errors in angular measurements).

Angular measurements, adjusting.................... 478
- correcting................. 478

Angular units of measurement 3

Annual variation of magnetic needle................. 543

Appreciable error............ 13

Arc of earth's surface, length of, compared with straight line. 2

Architect, data furnished to, by engineer................. 212

Architect, survey for......... 211

Architect's level............ 571

Architect's scales for maps.... 489

Astronomical triangle......... 620

Attachment, solar, for transit.. 627

Automatic leveling-rod....... 572

Auxiliary telescope for transit. 566

Area of land................ 407
- methods of finding......... 408
- units of.................. 407

Areas, between tangents and curves 408
- calculating................. 6
- computation of............. 6
  - different methods of...... 418
    - comparison of.......... 418
  - form for................ 413
  - formula for............. 430
  - Francke's rule for........ 412

AREAS, computation of (*cont'd*) PAGE
- method from coördinates, rules for............. 418
  - from curved boundaries. 412
  - from double latitudes and longitudes, example.............. 417
  - from latitudes and longitudes, general method 414
  - from latitudes and longitudes, rules for....... 416
  - from latitudes and double longitudes.... 413
  - from map.............. 408
  - from offsets............ 411
  - from offsets, irregular intervals............. 412
  - by planimeter.......... 408
  - from square feet........ 416
- Poncelet's rule for........ 412
- trapezoidal rule for....... 411
- trigonometric formulas for.................. 407
- geometrical figures......... 407
- metric system of, and English equivalents........... 407

Axis of bubble tube........... 544
- of earth, length of.......... 1
- of lens, principal. 546
  - secondary................ 547
- of transit, supporting....... 563

Azimuth and altitude, reversing transit in.............. 92

Azimuth, checking by magnetic needle............... 124
- computations of latitude and departures............... 387
- definition of.............. 114
- facts to remember about.... 115
- forward and back.......... 115
- methods of running transit lines................... 120
- of Polaris at elongation, table of................ 646
- of sun, formulas for........ 626
- use of, in locating objects... 134
  - in plotting traverses...471, 493

Backsight in leveling......... 237
- length of 251
- in measuring angles......... 90

Balancing a survey........... 395

Balancing-in transit.......... 201

Baltimore survey, scale used in plotting map.. 489

Band tape.................. 560

Barber, paper on determining a meridian............632, 634

Barometric formulas 246
- tables..................... 612

Barometer, aneroid........... 264
- effect of atmospheric changes 245
- effect of temperature........ 246
- errors in leveling. 265
- rate of change for different elevations............... 245

TER (*continued*) PAGE
g at sea-level......... 245
tric leveling........... 245
work.. 265
of error.............. 267
es of error............ 265
tables................ 266
e, choosing location in
ngulation............ 193
ensating apparatus
measuring........... 194
ct apparatus for meas-
g.................. 194
o measure........... 57
ng bridge piers........ 216
l apparatus for meas-
g.................. 194
ble error in measure-
nt.................. 58
oards, use of......... 208
ing lines for abutment. 215
aining wall........... 213
of a line, explanation
.... 111
and Azimuths, de-
.... 111
, algebraic signs of.... 378
ting angles from...... 382
ation of...6, 113, 378, 479
ck.................. 380
n deflection angles..... 382
mples in............ 381
ns for.............. 391
ortant distinction..... 380
s for............... 379
transit lines.......... 381
rsion to angular dis-
ce.................. 379
nined from Polaris.... 389
nce between
and magnetic........ 112
vard and back........ 112
rd and back bearings.. 112
n a survey........... 113
tic.................. 112
g, modified methods.. 469
tions in reading...... 103
g.................. 101
to remember about... 113
se lines.............. 382
change by the same
mount............... 382
.... 112
, in plotting traverses
467, 493
unning transit lines.... 126
arks, assuming eleva-
of.................. 235
.... 253
ion of.............. 235
ishing.............. 253
nent................ 253
n for city............ 235
rary................ 253
to use............... 253
to establish.......... 253

PAGE
Blue printing, directions for... 453
time of exposure........... 453
Blueprint cloth, how to prepare 454
paper, how to prepare...... 454
Blueprints, making corrections
on..................... 453
paper for 485
Board, plane table............ 576
adjustment of............. 604
Books on magnetic declination 541
on lettering................ 508
Border lines for maps......... 523
Borrow-pits.................. 287
Boston leveling-rod........... 232
waterworks, permanent stand-
ard for tapes.............. 562
Boundaries, method of locating 141
monuments for............. 211
Boundary lines, omitted, com-
putations for............. 405
referencing................ 211
Boundary survey, illustrations
of....................... 176
Bow-compasses, use of........ 442
Bread, use for cleaning drawings 448
Bridge piers, to locate........ 215
Bristol board protractor....... 456
Brown solar paper, directions
for use.................. 454
Brush, camel's hair........... 450
Bubble tube, dumpy level,
adjustment of........... 601
wye-level, adjustment of 594
Buildings, how to stake out... 209
Burt's solar attachment....... 628

Calculated bearings........... 113
checks for deflection angles. 155
Calculation of areas.......... 407
Calculating earthwork by meth-
od of unit areas............ 429
Camel's hair brush........... 450
Capital letters, directions for
making................. 28
Gothic.................. 511
study of................. 511
Carbon paper, use in keeping
notes................... 175
Care of instruments; see Tapes,
Transit, Level, etc.........
Cassiopeiae, relation to Polaris. 358
Celestial equator............. 621
pole..................354, 620
Celluloid sheets, use in topo-
graphic surveying.......... 348
Centering the eyepiece........ 601
Centers, care of.............. 618
fretting of................ 619
Certificate, surveyor's......... 503
Chaining (also see Tape and
Steel tape) 31
accuracy in............... 45
across a river, method of.... 65
allowable discrepancies in,
comparison of tables...... 50

CHAINING (*continued*) PAGE
allowable discrepancies in, table of.................. 49
base line, practical suggestions.................. 58
between two inaccessible points.................. 65
between two non-intervisable points.............. 55
building intervening, problem; method............ 64
care of steel tape........... 31
coefficients of precision..... 46
combining errors.......... 52
end graduation of tape.... 35
errors in.................. 37
  in alignment............. 41
  formulas for probable.... 45
  limits of..............44, 46
  in marking tape lengths... 42
  probable, for lines of different lengths............ 45
    in measuring base line.. 58
  in reading the tape....... 42
  relative importance of.... 43
  sag of tape.............. 41
  sources of............... 39
  summary of sources of.... 43
  table of, corresponding to ratios of precision...... 51
  uneven pull of tape....... 42
general method of.......... 33
handling of tape........... 31
how to obtain precision..... 53
importance of............. 31
judging accuracy 45
limits of precision, ratio for. 47
  requirements of.......... 51
locating details............ 56
making a chain survey...... 56
measurements, base line.... 57
  greater than tape length 34
  height of inaccessible point.................. 65
  less than tape length..... 34
methods used on a slope.... 35
obstacles.................. 54
precautions to insure accuracy 36
  necessary................ 35
over a high wall........... 54
precision, limits of.........47, 51
probable error in measuring base line................ 58
problems.................. 60
prolonging straight line through obstacles........ 66
ratio for limits of precision.. 47
reducing inclined to horizontal distances.......... 36
referencing a point......... 54
requirements of limits of precision................ 51
setting the chaining pins.... 35
slope, methods of.......... 35
  with tape horizontal...... 36
sources of errors 39

CHAINING (*continued*) PAGE
special work.............. 54
table of errors corresponding to ratios of precision.. 51
what a chainman should do. 37
woods intervening.......... 54
Chaining pins, how to set...... 35
Chainman, lining in.......... 41
  what he should do......... 37
  what he should not do...... 38
Chains........................ 559
  comparison with tape....... 33
  how to read............... 33
  to do up and undo......... 32
  unit of measurement, equivalents; basis of unit....... 3
Chain survey, general method . 56
  house and lot............. 56
Chain tape.................. 560
Changing decimal a foot to inches.................... 3
Chart, isogonic............... 543
Checking level notes, rules for 242
Checking work............... 12
Check for closed polygon, by bearings................. 127
  for interior angles of polygon 119
  on transit line angles....... 119
Checks used in plotting....... 494
Chinese ink.................. 447
Chord method of erecting perpendiculars.............. 461
  of measuring angles......... 63
  of plotting angles........... 459
    bearings................. 469
    traverses................ 484
Chromatic aberration. 549
Circle, area of.. 407
  geometrical properties...... 205
Circular bubbles...... 545
City survey, illustrations...... 188
Clamps, use of upper and lower, on transit................. 91
Classes of errors............. 9
Class worth in making field notes, directions............ 30
Cleaning Instruments (see Tapes, Transit, Level, etc.).
Cleaning maps............... 527
Clinometer.................. 571
Coefficient of expansion steel tape..................... 40
Coefficients of precision, how to determine................ 46
  table of.................. 49
Collimation, line of........... 553
Colored inks, printing values on tracings.................. 507
Combination method of keeping notes.... .....177, 180, 184
Compass, adjustments of...... 602
  adjustment of level....... 602
    needle................ 603
    pivot point............ 603
    sights................ 602
  advantages of............. 293

s (*continued*) PAGE
gement of letting...... 120
ring pivot point of..... 603
ation arc, use of 295
vantages of........... 293
ate readings.......... 295
o read............... 101
ng-up................ 294
g an obstruction...... 295
compass.......... .. 575
utions in reading bear-
s...................... 103
atic compass.......... 576
cting pivot........... 294
g needle............ 294
gnetizing the needle ... 295
rements for........... 275
ng through a wood 293
compass.............. 576
es of local attraction... 294
l forms of............ 575
yor's compass......... 575
for.................. 576
f..................... 294
er compass. 576
ses, drawing, adjusting. 442
f..................... 442
s-needle for transit 567
lso Magnetic needle.)
s surveying........... 293
lary disputes.......... 299
nation Tables, by T. J.
uer 299
notes, forms for....... 297
al method.........293, 295
of precision.......... 298
attraction, detection
l elimination.......... 296
al of, by F.H. Hodgman 299
od of locating details... 296
od of procedure........ 298
ning ridge surveys..... 298
es of error........... 298
to run the lines.. 295
sating errors.......... 11
ations for triangulation,
for................. 399
ing in relation to office
.... 5
ing machines in office
.... 377
te foci of lens......... 547
ent accuracy in surveying 7
t errors, definition of.. 10
ation of.............. 12
, definition of......... 337
intervals, choosing ... 344
inking and marking.... 518
s, elevation of......... 343
s, interpolating 497
ng with hand-level 233
plotting profiles...... 533
tional signs for maps... 519
for maps............ 523
ate method of finding
.... 418

PAGE
Copying maps............... 500
Correction coefficients to barometic elevations........... 643
Corrections for declination 637
  for slopes in chaining....... 35
Cosine and sine method of plotting angles................ 459
Cosines, logarithmic, table of. 718
  natural, table of........... 662
Cotangents, logarithmic, table of..................... 718
  natural, table of.......... 672
Cover, waterproof, for plane table.................. 577
Cross hairs of telescope (also see Spider-webs)......... 550
  adjustment of............. 586
  broken, to place........... 616
  dumpy level, adjustment of. 601
  illuminating............... 357
  removing dust from 614, 617
  wye-level, adjustment of.... 593
Cross levels.................. 243
Crown glass lens............. 549
Cube roots, table of.......... 683
Cubes, table of. 683
Cumulative errors............ 11
Curb, to set grade stakes for... 282
Curvature of the earth, formula for.................. 2
Curved ruler, use of.......... 442
Curves, degree of, definition... 282
  field work of running in..... 206
  flexible rulers for........... 443
  formulas for............... 205
  geometrical principles of.... 204
  inking.................... 447
  laying out by offsets from
    chords produced......... 207
      long chord 208
    by tangent offsets........ 207
    with tape............... 207
  length of, definition of...... 205
  picking up a tangent 206
  vertical................... 282
    staking out.............. 289
Cut and fill.................. 428
  estimates of............... 432
  estimates for grading....... 287
  estimating from contour map 435
Cyclotomic transit........... 564

Daily path of sun............ 622
Datum, definition of......... 234
  line...................... 234
  plane.................... 234
Decimals of a foot, changing to inches................ 3
    for each 32nd of inch..... 650
Declination, algebraic signs ... 621
  correction for.............. 636
  correction for change....... 636
  magnetic.................. 111
  of magnetic needle......... 542
  the sun's.............621, 622

PAGE
Declination arc of compass.... 295
Declinator for plane table..... 577
Defects of telescopes.......... 553
Definition of telescope........ 553
tests for.... 556
Deflection angles, (see also Angles, deflection).
check for calculated bearings 155
curves.................... 204
definition of 117
explanation of............. 98
measuring.................. 100
Detachable leaves for field notebooks..................... 175
Determination of
elevation of points.......... 5
latitude..................... 632
meridian.................. 354
by direct observation on sun, disadvantages..... 637
by double altitude method 632
paper on, by A. W. Barber. 632
with solar attachment.... 630
by solar observation...... 620
by sun's altitude. 624
forms for computation.. 627
method of procedure for computation......... 625
method of precedure for observation.......... 624
modified method of observation............ 625
from sun at noon......... 632
probable errors............ 17
sea level.................. 1
Diagonal eyepiece for transit.. 566
Diamond targets............ 572
Dictionary of altitudes........ 253
Differential leveling, definition of..................... 242
field work................ 250
forms of notes............ 241
Difference in elevation explained................... 2
Dimension lines of maps...... 507
Dip of the magnetic needle.... 541
Direct angles, (see Angles direct).
Direct vernier................ 540
Discrepancies in chaining, tables of..................49, 50
Discrepancy................. 11
Distances, horizontal; vertical; explained.............. 2
measurements in stadia surveying................. 309
reducing inclined to horizontal.................. 36
Distribution of errors......... 14
Diurnal variation of magnetic needle.................... 542
Dividers, use of.............. 441
Division in office computations 365
abridged methods......... 366
rules for checking 367

PAGE
Double-convex lenses, theory of....................... 546
Double longitude............. 415
to find. 416
Drafting-room methods....... 444
Drawing, books on........... 438
in relation to office work.... 5
Drawings, two kinds of....... 361
Dumpy level................. 570
adjustments of............. 600
bubble-tube.............. 601
cross-hairs.............. 601
principal lines..... 600
standards................ 601
advantage of fixed tube..... 601
value of level-bubble for.... 545

Earth's axis, length of........ 1
curvature, formula for...... 2
surface, definition of........ 1
Earthwork computations 428
books on.................. 435
choosing size of unit squares. 432
cut and fill, estimating..... 432
estimating from contour map... 435
running out to zero....... 432
end area formula... 434
finished surface, inclined.... 430
formulas for, compared..... 434
inclined surfaces........... 433
interpolation of elevations, graphic method of......... 433
irregular areas............. 431
method of procedure........ 431
prismoidal formula......... 434
for a continuous line...... 435
three-level sections......... 435
uneven ground. 432
unit triangles, formula for.. 432
use of diagram............. 435
Eccentricity of transit, test for 568
Elevation, difference in........ 2
Elevations, corresponding to barometric readings, table 642
finding by trigonometric methods............... 244
Elimination of constant errors 12
Ellipse, area of............... 407
Elongation of Polaris, observing.................... 356
time of.................... 357
table of times.... 646
Emergency repairs for sheet tapes................... 611
End graduation of tape....... 35
Endless chain leveling rod..... 572
"Engineers' Surveying Instruments," Baker............ 537
Engineers' chain.............. 559
English units and metric equivalents................. 407
measure converted to metric table................... 660

PAGE
Equal altitudes; methods of observation.............. 634
Equipment.................. 8
  for level party............. 248
Equivalents, English, of metric measurements........... 407
  metric, of English measurements.................. 407
Erasing..................... 447
  shield...................... 448
  on tracing cloth............ 452
Erecting eyepiece of telescope.. 552
Errors... 9
  alignment 41
  angular measurements...... 104
    linear error corresponding to one inch......... 105
    relative importance of.... 104
    sources of............... 104
  caused by poor set-up of transit.................. 89
  chaining, combining......... 52
    due to uneven pull of tape 42
    due to sag of tape........ 41
    formulas for probable errors................. 45
    limits of...............44, 46
    lines of different lengths... 45
    marking tape lengths..... 42
    reading the tape......... 42
    relative importance of sources................ 43
    sources of............... 39
    summary of sources...... 43
  classes of.................. 9
  closure 119
    determined by latitudes and departures......... 386
    permissible in transit surveying, formulas for.... 161
  compass surveying......... 298
  constant, elimination of.... 12
  explanation of classes of..... 10
  expressed by a ratio........ 39
  index..................... 98
    sextant................. 606
  instrumental, customary limits of.............. 108
    elimination of........... 106
    natural sources of........ 106
    permissible 109
    in setting up transit...... 104
    in sighting.............. 105
    tables of permissible, in sum of angles.......... 101
  length of tape............. 39
    to apply tape corrections.. 40
  leveling 255
    customary limits......... 255
  limits of, in chaining......44, 46
    in leveling.............. 255
    instrumental............ 108
    in surveying............ 7
    in triangulation.......... 199
  linear measurements........ 39

ERRORS (*continued*) PAGE
  plotting the map, how to run down................ 495
  plane table surveying....... 329
  plus and minus............ 9
  prevention and elimination of...................... 12
  probable, uses and assumptions.................... 16
  relation to discrepancy...... 11
  relative importance of...... 13
  sag of tape................ 41
  sources of................. 9
    in chaining.............. 39
    in compass surveying..... 298
    instrumental............. 106
    in measuring horizontal angles................. 96
    in stadia surveying....... 312
    in triangulation.......... 191
  stadia surveying, allowable................. 314
    sources of............... 312
  surveying.................. 7
    limits of................. 7
  table corresponding to ratios of precision............. 51
  tape, to apply correction.... 40
    not horizontal............ 40
    length of................ 39
    not stretched tight....... 40
  temperature of tape........ 40
  theory of.................. 15
    in transit surveying....... 159
    in triangulation, limits of.. 199
Establishing lines and points... 5
  points and lines of reference. 5
Expansion coefficient for steel tape.................... 40
Explanatory notes in field notes.................21, 23
  on maps.................. 527
Eyelet hole for riveting tape... 609
Eyepiece, centering........... 601
  dirt on................... 614
  moving too freely, to stop... 616
  sextant.................. 578
  telescope 549
    erecting, theory of........ 552
    non-erecting............ 555
      theory of............. 550
    variable power 555

Farm survey................ 211
Fence posts, where to set...... 202
Fences along streets, how to set.................... 202
  where to set.............. 202
Field notes, capital letters..... 28
  definition of.............. 20
  directions for classwork..... 30
  explanatory notes, object of. 23
    placing the notes........ 24
    when needed............ 24
  final suggestions........... 29
  general suggestions......... 21

FIELD notes (*continued*) PAGE
- height of letters........ 29
- importance of........ 20
- lettering........ 23
- methods of keeping........ 20
- methods of working up........ 477
- numerals........ 27
- numerical values, directions. 22
- recording measurements........ 22
- relation to general methods of surveying........ 5
- sketches, directions........ 23
- spacing letters........ 29
- three parts of........ 21
- topographic surveying........ 346
- transit surveying........ 164
- triangulation........ 198
- working up, preparatory to plotting........ 477

Field note book........ 175

Field work, important questions 6
- primary operations........ 5
- routine in leveling........ 250
- transit surveying........ 149

Field rod........ 259

Field of telescope, size of........ 554
- tests for........ 556

Filing system for drawings and note books........ 528

Fixed tube, dumpy level, advantages of........ 601

Finishing the map (also see Lettering the map)........ 361
- arrangements for........ 503
- arrow head........ 507
- border lines for........ 503, 523
- colored inks........ 507
- contour lines........ 518
- conventional signs........ 519
- conventional tints........ 523
- dimension lines........ 507
- explanatory notes on........ 527
- general method of procedure........ 503
- giving the scale........ 526
- inking........ 505, 506
- inking contour lines........ 518
- keys........ 527
- legends........ 527
- lettering........ 505, 507
- marking contour lines........ 518
- meridian needles........ 526
- method of precedure in........ 503
- mistakes in drawing contours 519
- names of details on........ 505
- names of streets and streams 505
- outlines, shading........ 506
- precedure, method of........ 503
- proper names........ 505
- scale for........ 526
- section lining........ 522
- style of lettering........ 508
- suggestions for arangements. 505
- surveyor's certificate........ 527
- tinting........ 522

FINISHING the map (*continued*) PAGE
- titles........ 505, 523
- tracings........ 507
  - colored inks for........ 507
  - use of colored inks........ 507
  - water linings........ 522
  - what should appear on maps........ 502

Flags, different colors, for soundings........ 203

Flexible curves........ 443
- leveling rod........ 572

Flint glass lens........ 549

Fluid used in spirit-level........ 544

Flying levels........ 243

Focal length of lens........ 547

Focus of lens, principal........ 546

Focusing rack of telescope........ 550
- slides, care of........ 615
  - fretting, to stop........ 615

Foot, decimals of, changing to inches........ 3
- decimals of, for each 32d of an inch........ 650
- divisions of, used in surveying........ 3

Foresight in leveling........ 236
- in measuring angles........ 90

Foresights, length of........ 251
- permanent........ 281

Formation of images........ 548

Forms for calculation of bearings........ 391
- for computations, of areas... 413
  - latitudes and departures.. 390
  - meridian........ 627
  - omitted measurements........ 405
  - plotting off land........ 424, 426
  - triangulation........ 399
- for notes in leveling........ 239
- for tabulating field notes........ 169
  - latitudes and departures.. 394

Formulas for probable errors.. 17

Forward and back bearings of a line........ 112

Francke's rule for areas........ 412

Free hand lettering........ 24
- numerals........ 27

Full circle system of numbering limb........ 21

Fundamental principles of surveying........ 1

Gage line, definition of........ 157

Gannatt's dictionary of altitudes........ 253

General methods of surveying.. 5

Geometrical figures, area of........ 407
- principles of curves........ 204
- properties of circles........ 205

Geodetic surveying, relation to plane surveying........ 2
- defined........ 191

Gothic alphabet........ 508

Grade, defined........ 243

GRADE (*continued*) PAGE
  calculating, relation to general methods of surveying. 6
  laying out on plotted profiles 533
  per cent 243
  shooting in 260
  elevations 428
Grade-rod 243
Grade-slats 383
Grade-stakes for curb 282
  how to mark 260
  illustration of setting 281
  methods of setting 258
Gradient, how to find 428
Gradienter, leveling with 245
  for transit 566
Grading estimates for cut and fill 287
Graduated arcs, to clean 612
Graduation of tape 560
  of transit, tests for 568
Graphic methods in office computations 377
Great dipper 355
Gunter's chain 3, 559

Hand level 570
  locating contours with 233
  use of 233
Hatching for topographic maps 519
High power telescope 555
Highway, how to stake out 212
Highway survey, illustration 184
Hinge leveling rod 572
Horizon 621
Horizon glass for sextant 578
  adjustment of 605
Horizontal angles, measuring with sextant 578
Horizontal control, choosing stations 431
  methods of in topographic surveying 431
Horizontal measurements; distances; angles; projection; explained 2
Horizontal plane defined 1
Horizontal plates of transit 67
Hour-angle 622
House-lot, how to stake out 210

Illumination of telescope 554
Images, formation of by lenses. 548
  relation of brightness of to magnifying power 554
Inclined distances reduced to horizontal; table 651
Index glass for sextant 578
  adjustment of 604
Index error 98
  sextant, to determine 606
India ink, how to mix 447
Inking, curves 442
  suggestions for 446
  the map 506
  lines 440

INKING (*continued*) PAGE
  wide lines 447
Inner spindle for transit 563
Instrumental errors in angular measurements 104
Instrumental sources of errors. 9
Instruments, adjustments of 6, 581
  care of 6, 607
    centers, spindles and sockets 618
    precautions 607
    things not to do 607
  drawing, use of 438
  lubricants for 611
  study of 537
  surveying 537
    primary parts of (see also Vernier, Magnetic needle, Level-bubble, Lens and Telescope) 538
  topographic 345
Intermediate stations, sights on 253
Interpolating contours, homemade device for 498
  tracing cloth method 497
Interpolation of elevations 433
Iron pipes for boundary monuments 211
Iron rod for boundary monuments 211
Irregular variations of magnetic needle 543
Isogonic chart 543, 638
  lines 543

Jacob's staff for compass 576
Johnson's plane table 577

Knot, how to tie sliding knot... 85

Land and buildings survey, illustrations of 180
Latitude, determination of 632
    from observation on Polaris 633
    from observation with solar attachment 633
    from observation on the sun 633
  effect of, on azimuth 356
  length in feet of, for 1 foot 661
  relation to Polaris 356
Latitude and departures 383
  algebraic signs for 384
  application to polygon 386
    system of transit lines 385
  balancing a survey 395
    methods of 395
    suggestions by Mr. E. Sherman Gould 397
  bearings to use 387
  checks 389
  complete example 389
  computing from azimuth 387
  computations, forms of...390, 393

Latitude and departures, computation of (*continued*) PAGE
  - methods 387
  - determining error of closure. 386
  - finding, method of 387
    - rules for 384
  - forms for computations..390, 393
    - for tabulating 394
  - methods of finding 387
    - by computations 387
    - from traverse tables 387
      - example of 388
    - by trigonometry 388
    - method of plotting angles. 461
    - relation to bearing and length 400
    - running down mistakes ... 389
    - tabulating 394
    - use in plotting traverses .. 493
- Laying off measurements to scale 448
  - plus stations 449
- Least count of vernier, to determine 538, 540
- Least squares, abbreviated methods 18
  - method of, defined 15
    - applied to angles 19
- Legends for maps 527
- Lens, achromatic 549
  - crown glass 549
  - flint glass 549
- Lenses, care of 614
  - concavo-convex 549
  - different forms of 546
  - double-convex 546
  - haziness in 614
  - plano-convex, in eyepiece, 546, 553
  - theory of 545
    - aberration, chromatic 549
      - spherical 549
    - application to telescope... 550
    - conjugate foci 547
    - different forms of lenses... 546
    - focal length 547
    - formation of images 548
    - optical centre 546
    - principal axis 546
    - principal focus 546
    - secondary axis 547
    - shape of surface 546
    - three general propositions. 546
- Lettering, books on 508
  - field notes 23
  - free hand 24
    - capitals 28
    - height of letters 29
    - spacing and compressing letters 29
  - maps 507
  - profiles 534, 535
  - Reinhardt's system 24
- Lettering the map 505
  - common defects in lettering 516

Lettering the map (*continued*) PAGE
  - general suggestions for 517
  - inking in letters 515
  - penciling the letters 510
  - printing bearings 517
  - printing linear measurements 517
  - printing values on angles.... 517
  - prominence, how to gain.... 518
  - proportions of letters 510
  - sizes of letters 509
  - spacing 516
- Level 569
  - Abney hand level 571
  - architect's level 571
  - clinometer 571
  - compass, adjustment of 602
  - delicacy of 227
  - effect of temperature on 227
  - hand-level 570
  - home-made levels 571
  - Locke's hand-level 570
  - plane table, adjustment of... 604
  - precision level 570
  - sensitiveness required 569
  - setting up 227
  - special forms of 570
  - telescope, use of 227
    - magnifying power of 555
  - tests for the level 571
  - use of 226
  - wye-level 569
- Level-bubble 544, 570
  - axis of the bubble defined... 544
  - circular bubbles 545
  - effect of heat on tube 544
  - fluid used 544
  - plumbing-levels 545
  - radius of curvature, formula. 545
  - relation to magnifying power 545, 555
  - repairing 613
  - "reversion" bubble-tube... 570
  - sensitiveness of bubble, to test 545
  - value of; how expressed.. 544
    - for plate levels 545
    - for transit 545
    - for wye-level or dumpy level 545
  - tube; how graduated 544
    - how ground 544
    - to repair 613
- Level notes 6
  - forms for 256
- Level party 248
  - equipment for 248
- Level surface, defined 1
- Leveling, abbreviations in notes 237
  - accidental errors 275
  - accurate method of procedure 279
  - allowable error, formula for. 276
  - assuming a datum 250
  - average speed 276
  - backsight, definition of 236

EVELING (*continued*) PAGE

- barometric 245, 265
- bench-marks 278
  - for street railways 280
- bubble tender 278
- checking levels 254
- checking notes, rules for 242
- choosing turning points 252
- closing error, definition of 275
- coefficient of precision 276
  - Chicago Sanitary District 276
  - Mississippi River Commission 276
  - N. Y. Barge and Canal Survey 278
  - in railway location 276
  - U. S. Geological Survey 276
- comparison of target and direct readings 271
  - of turning points and intermediate stations 239
- constant errors, how eliminated 274
- correction for assumed bench-mark 250
  - for combined curvature and refraction, table for 273
  - for refraction 273
    - table for 273
- curb, setting grade stakes for 282
- customary limits of error 275
- cut and fill 287
- datum 250
- definition of 234
- differential, field routine 250
- directions for, summary of 260
- discrepancy per mile 276
  - India 276
  - Switzerland 276
- duplicate lines 278
- elimination of errors 274
- equal foresights and backsights 278
- errors 267
  - accidental 275
  - accumulation of dirt 270
  - adjustments 268
  - allowable, formula for 276
  - change in length of level rod 272
  - change in position of transit 271
  - closing, definition of 275
    - formula for 255
  - computing 274
  - constant, how eliminated 274
  - curvature and refraction 273
  - defect of joint in rod 269
  - displacement of bubble 269
  - disturbing of level 272
  - effect of sun and wind 272
  - elimination of 274

LEVELING errors (*continued*) PAGE

  - feet corresponding to different displacements of bubble 264
  - imperfect adjustment 268
  - instrumental 268
  - limits of 275
  - lining of level rod 270
  - movement of object-glass slide 268
  - natural causes 272
  - permissible, table of 277
  - personal 274
  - probable, in sighting the target 271
  - reading rod directly 271
  - rod graduation 269
  - settling of instrument 271
  - settling of a turning point 272
  - sighting, causes of 270
  - sluggish bubble 268
  - sources of 268
- essential steps in 235
- establishing points at given elevations 243
- field notes 258
- field work 248
  - routine of 250
- first things to know 249
- foresight, definition of 236
  - permanent 281
- forms of notes 239
- formulas for 237
  - for allowable error 276
  - for errors of closure 255
- grade rod method 282
- grades for pavements 282
  - shooting 281, 283
- grade pole for sewers 283
- grade stakes, setting, 258, 281, 287
- grade work, instructions for 277
- gradienter 245
- height of instrument, definition of 236
- how close to check 254
- illustration of 238
- instrument, height of 236
- instrumental errors 268
- instructions for grade work 277
- intermediate stations defined 238
- judging precision, method of 275
- limits of errors 275
- line of shafting 287
- measurements, parallel to sewer 284
- methods of procedure 279
  - reading a rod 249
  - topographic surveying 343
- minus and plus sights 237
- mirrors, use of 275
- mistakes, how to avoid 274
  - in manipulating the level 269

LEVELING mistakes (*continued*) PAGE
in recording............. 274
in setting up............. 251
notes for sewer............ 284
notes, rules for checking..... 242
numbering stations......... 254
one-piece rod, advantages of..................... 275
pavements, grades for....... 282
permanent foresight........ 281
personal errors............. 274
plane of sight............. 235
plumbing level............. 278
plus and minus sights....... 237
precision, methods of judging.................... 275
probable error of sighting the target.................. 271
procedure, method of....... 279
profile, field routine......... 251
of a street.............. 280
reading the rod, methods of 249
rodmen, two, use of........ 279
rubber band, use of 281
rules for checking notes..... 242
running in opposite directions................... 254
setting grade stakes 258, 280, 287
for curb................ 282
illustration of............ 281
level grade.............. 288
sloping grade, one direction................ 288
two directions......... 288
sewer..................... 283
grade pole for............ 283
illustration of............ 286
measurements parallel to.. 284
notes for................ 284
shafting, line of............ 287
shooting in a grade..260, 280, 283
sighting, causes of errors in 270
sighting the target, probable error of................ 271
signals.................... 248
special work in............ 280
speed in...............255, 276
staking out a vertical curve.. 289
stations, defined........... 235
intermediate....... 238
numbering.............. 254
starting point............. 249
steel turning point......252, 278
street, profile of..... 280
suggestions for............ 260
surfaces above the instrument.................. 237
table of errors in feet corresponding to different displacements of bubble..... 269
table of permissible errors... 277
theory of.............234, 237
topographic surveying, methods used in.......... 343
trigonometric......200, 244, 263
use of stadia method..305, 308

LEVELING (*continued*)
turning-points, choosing...
comparison with interm
diate stations.........
definition of...........
steel................25
two essential steps.........
use of two rodmen.........
vertical curve.............
to stake out............
vertical parabola..........
where to set level.........
Leveling rods..............
advantages of one-pie
rod...................
angle target ....
automatic...............
check target.............
common mistakes in reac
ing.................22
"danger points" in rea
ing....................
devices for holding plumb..
diamond target...........
endless chain rods.........
errors in jointed rods......
marking in.............
extended, how to read.....
flexible rods.............
graduating upper half.....
high rod, how to use......
testing.................
hinge rod................
holding plumb, devices for.
importance of..........
how to hold.............
how to use high rod.......
marking errors in.........
mistakes in reading.....22
New York rod............
Philadelphia rod..........
plumbing level...........
purpose of swaying........
quadrant target..........
reading..................
"danger points" in......
mistakes in..........22
scale target..............
selfreading rods..........
singlepiece rod...........
speaking rods............
special forms............
swaying, purpose of.......
target rod...............
targets..................
angle.................
check.................
diamond..............
quadrant..............
scale.................
vernier...............
tests for.................
high rod..............
in sighting............
with tape.............
vernier for..............

EVELING rods (*continued*) PAGE
- vernier target 572
- when to hold bottom end up 237

evelman, duties of 263
- equipment for 248

ight, proportion of, passing through lens 554

imb graduations of transit .. 67

imb of transit 563
- reading, for angles 68
  - methods illustrated 69
  - common mistakes 69

imits of error, in angular measurements 108
- in chaining 46, 144
- table of permissible errors. 110

imits of precision, expressed by ratio 47
- requirements of 51

inear measurements, adjusting 478
- correcting 478

inear units of measurement.. 3

ine, agonic 543

ine of sight 553

ine of collimation 553

ines, isogonic 543

ining in 41
- with transit 91

ink, reduction to feet 3
- unit of measurement; equivalents 3

ittle dipper 355

ocal attraction of magnetic needle 543

ocating, details 5
- by angles and distances... 134
- boundaries 141
- curves by angles and distances 135
- curves by offsets 138
- irregular lines by offsets.... 138
- methods of 132
  - involving angular measurements 134
  - involving linear measurements only 138
  - by oblique offsets 140
- objects, by angles and distances 134
  - by azimuths and distances 134
  - by oblique measurements.. 139
  - by offsets 138
  - practical suggestions for.... 158
  - rectangular 144
  - tie lines, use of, in 140
  - transit lines 133
  - relation between angular and linear measurements 158
- points, by intersecting angles 137
  - methods of 4
  - three point method 138

PAGE

Location of Polaris 354

Locke's hand level 570

Logarithmic computations, forms for 399
- of latitudes and departures 393
  - forms for 393
- in office work 374

Logarithmic cosines, table of.. 718
- cotangents, table of 718
- sines, table of 718
- tangents, table of 718

Logarithms, table of 700

Longitude, converted to time, table of 648
- of a course 414
- length in feet of, for 1 foot .. 661

Lower plate of transit 563

Leveling head of transit 563

Lubricants, compared 618
- for instruments 611

Machine shop practice, use of surveying instruments.... 212

Machinery, how to locate 212

Magnetic bearing of a line 112

Magnetic declination 541
- annual change in variation 542
- to balance 612
- definition of 111
- determination of 360
- tables of 299
- tables and isogonic charts for 1902—Bauer 541

Magnetic needle 541
- agonic line in the U. S 543
- annual variation 543
- azimuth, use in checking 124
- dip of the needle 541
- diurnal variation 542
- irregular variations 543
- isogonic lines 543
- local attraction of 543
  - effect on old survey 543
    - common sources 543
- "Principal Facts Relating to Earth's Magnetism" Bauer 541
- to remagnetize 613
- requirements for 576
- secular variations .... 541.
- to straighten 603
- table of variations 643
- use in checking azimuth.... 124
- variations of declinations.... 541
  - annual 543
  - diurnal 542
  - irregular 543
  - Portland, Me 542
  - San Francisco, Cal 542
  - secular 541
  - table of 643

Magnifying power of telescope. 554
- relation to level-bubble.... 545

- MAGNIFYING power of telescope (*cont'd*) PAGE
  - relation to vernier.......... 567
  - tests for.................. 557
- Maps, copying and transferring.................. 500
  - finishing up..............6, 502
  - hatching for............... 519
  - plotting.................. 485
  - special purposes, requirements for............... 503
  - topographic surveying.. 338, 503
- Masonry, giving lines for...... 208
- Mean polar distances, table of.. 633
- Mean refraction corrections, table of............... 624
- Measurements, adjusting in the office................ 478
  - adjustments............... 13
  - allowable discrepancy between stadia and tape .. 314
  - angles.................... 5
    - errors.................. 104
    - horizontal, with sextant... 578
    - reduction of errors in triangulation............ 192
    - triangulation, method of... 194
    - trigonometric methods.... 63
    - vertical, with sextant..... 579
  - angular, methods of judging precision of............ 107
    - units of................ 3
  - base line, effect of error in triangulation........... 192
    - how to measure.......... 57
  - between inaccessible points 65, 222
  - between stadia and tape, allowable discrepancy...... 314
  - chaining.................. 34
    - requiring accuracy........ 45
  - conditions which affect accuracy.................. 108
  - correcting in the office...... 478
  - discrepancy between stadia and tape................ 314
  - distances.................. 5
    - how close to measure..... 309
  - errors..................... 9
    - in angular............... 104
    - in linear................ 39
  - height of inaccessible point 65, 222
  - horizontal, angles, with sextant.................. 578
    - explanation of........... 2
  - how close to measure distances................... 309
  - how to measure a base line.. 57
  - inaccessible points to and between....65, 222
  - linear, errors in............ 39
    - methods used in locating details................ 138
    - relation between angular and.................. 158
- MEASUREMENTS, linear (*ct'd*) PAGE
  - units of................. 3
  - methods of reducing stadia.. 480
  - miscellaneous units of....... 3
  - omitted (see Omitted measurements)
  - used in plane surveying..... 2
  - plotting.................. 157
  - precision in, conditions which affect.............. 108
    - methods of judging........ 107
  - probable values, how found.. 13
  - purpose of correcting and adjusting................ 478
  - record.................. 157
  - record of, in field work...... 21
  - recording................ 22
  - reducing stadia, methods of. 480
  - related quantities, adjustment of................ 14
  - relation between angular and linear in locating details............... 158
  - same quantity, adjustment of...................... 13
  - stadia, allowable discrepancy table................. 314
    - methods of reducing...... 480
  - to inaccessible points... 65, 222
  - units of; angular, linear, miscellaneous............... 3
  - vertical, explanation of...... 2
    - angles, with sextant...... 579
- Mechanical methods in office computations............ 377
- Mechanical drawing, introductory course in........... 445
- Merestones.................. 209
  - for marking street lines..... 202
  - referencing................ 203
- Meridian, determination of.... 354
  - by direct observation on sun................... 637
  - by double altitude method. 632
  - by solar observation...... 620
  - by sun's altitude.......... 624
  - from sun at noon......... 632
  - in high altitudes.......... 634
  - rough determination...... 359
  - different reference meridians. 124
  - in high latitudes.......... 634
  - reference.................. 124
    - in topographic surveying.. 341
  - rough determination of..... 359
- Meridian needles, designs for.. 526
- Method of keeping field notes 20
  - of least squares, abbreviated 18
    - applied to angles......... 19
    - definition of............. 15
    - fundamental assumptions. 15
  - of plane table surveying... (see Plane table surveying).................
  - of plotting angles........... 455
    - traverses................. 463
  - of reversion of instruments.. 583

PAGE
of working up field
es 477
unit of measurement;
valents............. 3
measure converted to
;lish: table........... 660
a and English equiva-
s of areas............ 407
ad plus errors, explana-
of.................. 9
in decimals of a degree;
e.................. 660
use in leveling........ 275
data, supplying....... 480
, defined............ 10
ading the limb of
sit....................69, 71
elation to Polaris..... 356
nts for boundaries.... 211
rking street lines..... 202
obable value, how ob-
ied.................. 15
.... 15
cation, abridged, use
n stadia reduction 481
cation in office com-
on................. 364
dged methods........ 365
s for checking........ 366
cation tables, for office
itations............. 376

l Bureau of Standards. 561
sources of errors....... 9
almanac............ 622
compass, adjustment 603
rk leveling rod....231, 571
cting eyepiece of tele-
e.................. 550
ok for office computa-
s................... 363
ing limb; combination
circle and half-circle
em 73
nation of full-circle
quadrant system 75
rcle system.......... 71
ant system for de-
ion angles.......... 75
ing limb graduation of
sit................. 67
ing stations, plus system 254
ls in field notes, direc-
s................... 27
al values in notes...22,. 21

lass of telescope...... 549
g too freely to stop ... 616
rtion of light to size... 554
lass slide, adjustment of 602
triangles, area of...... 408
s, to prolong straight
through 66
s to chaining......... 54
lems............... 64

PAGE
Obstacles to transit surveying. 216
Office computations.......... 362
  abridged addition.......... 372
    division................. 366
    multiplication........... 365
    subtraction 372
  accuracy of............... 371
    consistent.............. 370
    how determined.......... 370
  addition, shortening........ 372
  algebraic signs for angles.... 375
  angles, algebraic signs........ 375
    how best determined...... 375
  application of rules for short-
    ening.................. 373
  approximate checks........ 362
  arithmetical, checks........ 368
    short cuts in............. 364
  arrangement of............ 363
  certain figures, number of... 370
  checks for................. 269
      approximate........... 362
      arithmetical........... 368
    for arithmetical computa-
        tions............... 369
      division............367, 369
      importance of......... 362
      multiplication......366, 369
      second differences...... 368
      subtraction............ 369
  consistent accuracy......... 370
  Crelle's multiplication tables 376
  determining accuracy....... 370
    angles.................. 375
    quantities............... 375
  devices for reading tables... 375
  different kinds of.......... 361
  division, abridged.......366, 372
    long.................... 365
  economic method of proced-
    ure.................... 364
  effect of uncertain figures... 371
  eliminating worthless figures 369
  figures, certain number of... 370
    significant, number of.... 370
    uncertain, effect of........ 371
      number of............. 371
    worthless, eliminating of. 369
  graphic methods........... 377
  importance of checking..... 362
  interpolating logarithms,
    method of............... 374
  large numbers, square roots of 368
  logarithmic computations... 374
  logarithms, looking up....... 374
    memorizing.............. 375
    methods of interpolating 374
    saving time in looking up 374
  long division.............. 365
  mechanical method.......... 377
  marking trigonometric tables 375
  memorizing logarithms 375
  methods of................ 362
    economic................ 364
    graphic................. 377

Office computations, methods of (*continued*) PAGE
  interpolating logarithms.. 374
  mechanical 377
  systematic 363
multiplication 364
  abridged 365, 371
  checking 366
  tables—Crelle's 376
note book 363
  separate leaf 363
number of certain figures 370
  of significant figures 370
  of uncertain figures 371
numbers, large, square root of 368
  small, to square 367
    square root of 367
order of procedure 363
planimeter 376
quantities, how best determined 375
reading tables, devices for 375
rules for shortening 373
saving time in looking up logarithms 374
second differences, checking by 368
separate leaf note-book 363
shortening 371
  addition 372
    application of rules 373
  arithmetical work 364
  division 372
  multiplication 371
  subtraction 372
significant figures, number of 370
sines or tangents, which to use 375
special tables 377
speed in 364
square a small number 367
square roots of large numbers 368
  of small numbers 367
systematic method 363
tables, multiplication, Crelle's 376
  for special use 377
  trigonometric 373
    devices for reading 375
    marking 375
    useful 376
tangents or sines, which to use 375
trigonometric tables 373
uncertain figures, effect of 371
  number of 371
useful tables 376
worthless figures, eliminating 369
Office work 361
surveyor 5
transit surveying 149
Offsets, rules for taking 139
use of, in calculating areas 411
  locating details 138
Omitted boundary lines, computations for 405
Omitted measurements, bearing and length of one side 401

Omitted measurements (ct'd)
  bearing of one side a
  length of another
bearings of two sides
calculation of
  forms for
  methods of
forms for computation
general cases
length of two sides
methods of calculation
parts of a triangle
trigonometric metho
  illustrated
two sides affected
Omitted parts of a triangle
Optical center of lens
Optics, theory of lenses
Orienting the transit
Outer spindle for transit

Pantograph
  how to set
  in office computations
  theory of
  use of
Paper, eggshell surfaces
  fastening to the drawing bo
  for photo reproduction
  for plane-table work
  shrinkage of
Parabola, area of
Parallax
Parallelogram, area of
Parallel lines, how to draw
Parallels, construction of wi
  tape
  problems in establishing
Parts of transit, principal
Pavements, how to lay diff
  ent grades
  templet for
Peg adjustment; three metho
Pencil, use of
Penciling, suggestions for
Permanent standard for tape
Perpendiculars, constructi
  of with tape
  erecting, chord method
  how to draw
  problems in erecting
Personal sources of errors
Philadelphia leveling rod
229, 2
Photo reproduction, paper fo
Piers, bridge, to locate
Pivot point compass adju
  ment of
  to center
Plain compass
Plane horizontal definition
  vertical, definition of
Plane surveying kinds of mea
  urement used
  limits of area covered
Plane table 3

le (*continued*) PAGE
ries of 577
ents of............. 603
oards............... 604
vels................ 604
elescope............. 604
elescope level........ 604
ertical circle......... 604
.... 576
.... 576
for carrying paper.... 327
ning paper to board.. 327
set up.............. 319
's.................. 577
lation of............ 327
, Wainwright's...... 332
or.................. 327
for carrying......... 327
ning to board........ 327
ng-bob.............. 577
r................... 577
ead................ 577
oof cover for 327, 577
veying............. 318
ages of............. 319
vertical............ 328
solution of three-
problem........... 330
ights.............. 328
of scale............ 328
of stations.......... 329
Survey, solution of..
oint problem........ 332
glasses, use of....... 328
ison of methods..... 327
ing sheets.......... 327
method of locating... 329
ntages of........... 319
imits of............ 329
es of............... 329
ork, questions re-
g to............... 328
method............ 318
method of solu-
of three-point prob-
.... 330
tion, method of..321, 324
nn's method of solu-
of three-point problem 333
f error in........... 329
method of solution
ree-point problem.... 331
g details, method of .. 329
ical solution of
-point problem...... 329
ls of comparison..... 327
ral................. 318
section..........321, 324
ing details 329
ression...........321, 322
tion................ 321
progression.....321, 323
iring linear meas-
ements............. 321
g no linear measure-
ts................. 321

PLANE surveying and methods of comparison (*continued*) PAGE
resection 321, 326
methods of work........... 321
practical suggestions for.. 327
plotting, suggestions for .. 328
principal uses of............ 318
problem, three-point........ 329
problem, two-point 334
progression, method of...... 321
illustrated............... 322
radiation, method of........ 321
illustrated............... 321
radio-progression, method of 321
illustrated............... 323
resection, method of........ 321
illustrated............... 326
scale, choice of............. 328
setting over a point......... 320
sources of error............. 329
stations, choice of.......... 329
suggestions for plotting..... 328
three-point problem......... 329
traversing, method of....... 321
Bessel's method............ 329
Coast survey method....... 332
graphic solution............ 329
Lehmann's method......... 331
Llano's method............ 331
mechanical solution......... 329
methods by trial........... 331
rules from Wainwright's..
manual................. 333
two-point problem.......... 334
vertical angles............. 328
Wainwright's manual rules..
for three-point problem... 333
Planimeter, use of............ 408
in office computations....... 377
Plate levels, adjustments of... 584
value of level-bubble
for 545
Plates for transit............ 563
Plotting..................... 361
angles.................... 455
collecting data for.......... 483
consistent accuracy......... 464
off land, forms for computation.............424, 426
general cases.............. 422
general problem............ 421
from a given polygon....... 422
illustrations of............. 422
variety of problems......... 421
the map—(see below).......
points, lines and details..... 6
preliminary steps to........ 483
traverses, from azimuths.... 493
from bearings............ 493
by deflection angles....... 493
by direct angles.......... 493
from latitudes and departures................. 493
methods of.............463, 484
summarized............. 492
Plotting the map............ 485

PLOTTING the map (*continued*) PAGE
  accuracy required.......... 499
  arrangements for........... 490
  assuming the first line...... 491
  checks for angles........... 494
    combination............. 495
    for linear measurements... 494
    used.................... 494
  choice of scale............. 489
    rules for................ 489
  common scales.............. 488
  copying and transferring.... 500
  details.................... 496
    checks for............... 497
  drawing instruments........ 486
  equipment necessary........ 485
  errors, to run down......... 495
  general methods of.......... 487
  how to begin............... 490
  interpolation of contours..... 497
  method of procedure........ 487
  paper...................... 485
  precautions necessary....... 486
  speed in................... 499
  transferring................ 500
  traverses.................. 492
  triangulation net........... 491
Plumbing bar, for plane-table.. 577
Plumb-bob.................. 85
  level...................... 573
  bubble used for............ 545
Plumb-line, effect of irregular distribution of mass........ 2
Plunging the telescope........ 86
Plus and minus errors explained.................. 9
Plus stations, methods of laying off.................... 449
Pocket steel tape............. 560
Pointers.................... 355
Points, methods of location.... 4
Point of curvature............ 205
  of tangency................ 205
Polar distance............... 355
  distances of Polaris, table of. 633
  effect of latitude in......... 355
Polaris, azimuth at elongation. 355
    formula for finding....... 356
    table of................ 646
  check observations......... 358
  eastern and western elongation.................... 355
  effect of latitude on azimuth. 355
  facts concerning............ 355
  formula for finding azimuth 356
  methods of observing 356
    comparison of............ 359
  observations on............ 354
    at any time............. 359
    at elongation............ 356
    at culmination 358
    comparison of methods.... 359
    to determine latitude..... 633
  polar distances............. 355
    mean, table of........... 633
  relation to Cassiopeaiae..... 358

POLARIS (*continued*) PAGE
  relation to latitude......... 356
    Mizar..............356, 358
  table of mean polar distances. 633
  time of elongation.......... 375
    tables of................ 644
  upper and lower culmination. 355
Polygon, area of............. 407
  closed check by bearings.... 127
Polyhedron, definition of...... 429
Poncelet's rule for areas....... 412
Portland, Me., variation of magnetic needle at............. 542
Porro telescope.............. 553
Positive prints, how to make.. 454
Precision of angular measurements, conditions affecting.. 108
    methods of judging 107
Precision co-efficients, determination of............... 46
Precision in chaining, how to obtain.................. 53
  tables of.................. 48
Precision level.............. 570
Precision, limits of, in compass surveying 298
  limits expressed by ratio..... 47
  requirements of different limits.................. 51
  table of errors corresponding to different ratios........ 51
Prevention of errors.......... 12
Primary parts of surveying instruments................ 538
Primary stations, elevation of, in topographic surveying ... 343
Principal axis of lens......... 546
Principal lines of adjustment of transit.................. 584
Prism, definition of........... 429
  for stadia................. 553
Prismatic compass............ 576
  eyepiece for transit......... 566
Prismoid, definition of........ 434
Problems in chaining.......... 60
Probable errors.............. 16
  definition of............... 15
  determination of............ 17
  formulas for............... 17
  measuring base line......... 58
  of the mean............... 16
  single observation.......... 16
  use of..................15, 16
Profile leveling, definition of... 242
    field routine.............. 251
    forms of notes for........ 346
Profile paper, different kinds.. 530
Profiles.................... 529
  checking.................. 532
  common mistakes in plotting 533
  conventional signs for statia. 535
  explanatory notes on........ 536
  finishing...............6, 534
  horizontal and vertical scales relation of.............. 531
  laying out grades on........ 538

PROFILES (*continued*) PAGE
- lettering 534, 535
- misleading 530
- paper for 530
- plotting 6, 529
  - from contours 533
  - general method 532
  - of related lines 533
- scales for 530
- scales for different papers ... 531
- showing progress on construction 536
- titles for 536
- working up notes 531

Projection, horizontal, explained 2
Proper names on maps 505
Proportional dividers, use of 441
Protractor 377
- bristol board 456
- convenient form of 455
- device for holding 457
- how to make 457
- office computations 377
- paper 458
- three armed 462
- use of 455, 457
  - in plotting traverse lines .. 464
  - in topographic surveying .. 348

Purpose of a survey; relation to field work 6

Quadrant targets 572
Quantities, how best determined for angles 375

Radius of curvature, level-bubble formula for 545
Radius earth, average 1
Ratio expression of error 39
Ratio expressing limits of precision 47
Reading angles (see Angles)
- glass of transit 98
- leveling-rod 227
- the vernier 539

Reciprocal leveling 243
- table of 683

Records in field notes 21
Recording field notes 5
- measurements, sources of trouble 22

Reels and handles for tapes 561
Reference lines, location of, in rectangle 209
- checking 495
  - topographic surveying 341
- meridian for areas 414

Referencing boundary line 211
- a line 203
- a point 54, 203

Reflector for transit 567
Refraction, correction for 623
- mean: table of corrections .. 624
- tables of, for use with solar attachment 649

PAGE

Reinhardt's system of lettering, 24
Relations of general work of surveyor 5
- of indoor work of surveyor .. 5
- of primary operations of field work 5

Remagnetizing compass needle. 295
Replacing broken cross hairs .. 616
Requirements for transits 567
Residual, defined 15
Retaining-wall, to give lines for 213
Reticule of telescope 550
Retrograde vernier 540
Reversing the telescope 86
Reversion, method of 583
- bubble tube 570

Ribbon tape 560
Right angle, construction of, with tape 60
- triangles, area of 407

Riveting a broken tape 609
Road, how to stake out 212
Rodman, duties of 263
- equipment for in leveling 248
- suggestions for 261

Roman alphabet 508
Rough riveting for broken tapes 677
Rubber bands, use of, in leveling 262, 281
Ruling-pen, adjusting 441
- cleaning 441
- sharpening 441
- use of 440

Running transit lines, (see also Transit lines) 122

Saegmuller solar attachment 631
Sag of tape, formulas for 41
- methods of eliminating 41

Salt Lake City apparatus for standardizing tapes 562
San Francisco, variation of magnetic needle at 542
Scales, choice of, in plotting ... 489
- designs for 527
- equivalents for various ratios, table of 488
- for maps 526
  - for different purposes 489
- for plotting, choice of 489
  - the map 488
  - used by the Government .. 488
- for profiles 531
- on target 572
- use of 440
  - in chaining base line 58

Sea level, defined; how determined 1
- reading of barometer 245

Secondary axis of lens 547
Section liner 449
- lining 449
- for maps 522

Sector of circle, area of 407

PAGE
Segment of circle, area of..407, 409
Sextant.................... 577
  adjustments of............ 604
    the horizon glass......... 605
    the index glass........... 604
    the telescope............ 605
  advantages of............. 578
  eyepieces, three kinds of.... 578
  horizon glass.............. 578
  index error................ 606
  index glass................ 578
  measuring horizontal angles. 578
  measuring vertical angles... 579
  theory of.................. 579
  use of..................... 578
  vernier arm................ 578
Secular variations of magnetic needle.................. 541
Self-reading leveling rods...... 571
Self-reading stadia rod........ 573
Set screws for transit......... 564
Sewer, flow-line............... 211
  leveling for................ 283
Shafting, to give lines for...... 212
  leveling for................ 287
  leveling, giving elevations for.................... 287
Shellac for cross-hairs of telescope.................. 550
Shortening computations in office work...........364, 372
Siderial day................ 355
Sighting at points in the dark.. 358
Sights, compass, adjustment of 602
Signals, leveling.............. 248
  for stations in triangulation. 198
Sines, table of............... 662
  logarithmic, table of........ 718
Sine-cosine method of measuring angles............. 63
Single-piece leveling rod....... 572
Sketch method of keeping notes, illustrations.....179, 183, 189
Sketches in field notes 21, 23
Slide-rule, in office computations.................... 377
Slide-rules for stadia work..... 483
Slopes, methods of chaining... 35
Sockets, care of.............. 618
Solar attachment........ 566, 627
  Burt's, use of.............. 628
  method of procedure for Burt's.................... 630
  observation to determine latitude 633
  Saegmuller; use of......... 631
  table of refractions.......... 649
Solar compass................ 576
Solar paper, brown........... 454
Soldering a broken tape....... 610
Soundings, use of flags of different colors............. 203
Sources of errors............. 9
  chaining, summary and relative importance.......... 43

PAGE
Speed in leveling............. 276
Speed in surveying, how gained.................. 8
Spider-webs; best kind........ 616
  how to procure............. 616
  to fasten to ring............ 616
Spindles, care of............. 618
  for transit................. 563
Sphere in relation to earth's surface.................. 1
Spherical aberration........... 549
Spirit-level.................. 544
Splines, hard-rubber for curves. 443
Sponge rubber............... 448
Spring balance, use of in measuring base line........... 57
Square chains, basis of unit of measurement............ 3
  feet, to reduce to acres....... 416
Squares, table of.............. 683
Square roots of large numbers. 368
  of small numbers........... 367
  table of................... 683
Stadia, accuracy of, in leveling 308
    in measuring distances.... 307
  adjustment of wires......... 303
  advantage of standard interval.................. 303
  angles, how close to measure.................. 309
    vertical, when to ignore... 307
  checking distances.......... 309
    side shots on line......... 309
  correction constant.....302, 315
  definition of............... 300
  diagrams for reduction..... 482
  distances, accuracy in measuring................. 307
    checking.................. 309
    how close to measure..... 309
    horizontal, to measure in level ground....... 307
      to measure on sloping ground............ 307
    vertical, how to obtain.... 308
  elevations, method of finding 305
    to obtain................ 309
  form of notes.............. 310
  formulas for reducing inclined readings........... 305
  graduating the rod.......... 304
  horizontal distances, to measure.................... 307
  how close to measure angles. 309
    distances................ 309
  how to graduate the rod.... 304
  ignoring vertical angles...... 307
  inclined readings, formulas for reducing........... 306
    reduction of.............. 307
    standard, advantage of... 303
  interval, to test............ 302
    factor..........303, 304, 315
  length of sight, maximum... 307
  leveling, accuracy of stadia.. 308

STADIA (*continued*) PAGE
trigonometric..........305, 308
line of sight inclined........ 305
maximum length of sight... 307
measurements, compared with tape............. 315
method of reducing....... 480
measuring angles........... 309
distances................ 309
horizontal distances...... 307
notes, form of 310
reducing................. 480
obtaining elevations......... 308
obtaining vertical distances. 308
principle of................ 301
readings, inclined, formulas for reducing........... 305
reduction of............. 307
reduction tables............ 659
use of.................. 480
rod (see also Stadia rod).... 300
side shots, checking......... 306
slide rules................. 483
special rod................. 303
standard intervals, advantage of................ 303
theory involved in.......... 301
to test the interval......... 302
trigonometric leveling....305, 308
vertical angles............. 307
distances............... 308
wires, to adjust............ 303
Stadia rods.............300, 573
common mistakes in reading................ 305
different patterns compared. 573
directions for making....... 574
to graduate................ 304
method of reading.......... 304
self-reading............... 573
special.................... 303
standard, advantage of...... 304
target..................... 573
tests in sighting........... 313
Stadia surveying............. 300
allowable discrepancies in... 314
allowable errors in elevation. 314
angles, how close to measure. 309
checking distances.......... 316
elevations.............. 316
side shots.............. 316
closure, error of........... 315
determining the stadia interval, erorr in.......... 312
discrepancies, allowable..... 314
between stadia and tape measurements......... 314
distances, checking......... 316
long, reading........... 316
effect of refractions......... 312
elevations, allowable errors in................... 314
checking............... 316
errors, change in wire interval................... 312
of closure............... 315

STADIA surveying (*continued*) PAGE
determining the stadia interval............... 312
effect of refraction........ 312
elevation, allowable....... 314
limits of................ 313
for series of lines....... 315
separate horizontal measurements.............. 313
single observation 312
sources of.............. 312
general methods............ 309
horizontal measurements, errors of................ 313
interval, errors in determining............... 312
wire, change in........... 312
limits of errors............. 313
for series of lines......... 315
maximum length of sight... 316
measurements, angles....... 309
horizontal, errors of...... 313
mistakes in reading rod..... 312
reading long distances....... 316
reading rod................ 316
mistakes in............. 312
refraction, effect of......... 312
side shots, checking.......... 316
sight, line of, maximum..... 316
sighting, methods of........ 315
single observation, errors.. 313
sketches for............... 312
sources of error............ 312
wire interval, change in..... 312
Stadia wires............... 300
advantages of............. 304
for transit................ 567
non-adjustable............ 303
Stakes, use of, in measuring base line.................. 57
Staking out a building........ 209
details.................. 5
house-lot................. 210
road and highways......... 212
Standard time.............. 622
for transit................ 563
yard, definition of......... 3
Standards, adjustment of..... 589
dumpy level, adjustments .. 601
National Bureau of......... 561
Standardizing tapes.......... 561
Station, defined.............. 235
to determine most westerly.. 471
Steel tape (see also Tape)..... 560
care of.................31, 609
emergency repairs........ 611
eyelet tool for riveting.... 609
riveting a broken tape.... 609
rough riveting........... 611
soldering broken tape 610
soldering flux, to prepare. 610
soldering outfit.......... 610
soldering, sleeves for 610
sticky flux for......... 610
stick splice............. 611
determination of end points. 35

Steel tape (*continued*) PAGE
  figure 8 31
  handling 31
Stick splice for broken tapes 611
Stone posts for boundary monuments 211
Stone walls, where to set 202
Straight edge, steel 486
  to test 438
Straight line, methods of prolonging 92
Strata, conventional signs used in profiles 535
Street lines, how marked 202
  location of 158
Sun, azimuth of; formulas for 626
  daily path of 622
  observation to determine latitude 633
Sun's declination 622
  to look up 623
Supporting axis of transit 563
Surface of lens, shape of 546
Surface, earth's, definition of 1
  level, relation to plane 1
Survey, for an architect 211
  bearings kept 113
  ownership of 503
  what constitutes 503
Surveying, accuracy in 7
  care of instruments 6
  definition of 2
  errors in 7
  field work operations 5
  general methods 5
  geodetic 191
  importance of checking work 12
  important questions in connection with field work 6
  object of 4
  office work 5
  operations similar to drafting 5
  plane, definition of 2
  plane table 318
  purposes of, illustrations 6
  speed in, how gained 8
  stadia 300
  system in 8
  topographic 337
  instruments 537
Surveying instruments (see also Chains, Tapes, Transit, Level etc.).
  book on 537
Surveyor's certificate 503
    forms of 537
  compass 575
  crayon 147
  keel 147
System in surveying 8
  of transit lines 117
Tables, allowable discrepancies *in chaining* 48, 49

Tables (*continued*) PAGE
  coefficients of precision for chaining 48
  comparison of tables of discrepancies 50
  correction for combined curvature and refraction in leveling 273
  errors corresponding to ratio of precision 51
  errors in feet corresponding to displacement of bubble 269
  List and Index of 639
  mean polar distances 633
  mean refraction corrections 624
  permissible errors in leveling 277
    the sum of angles 110
  square measure 407
  stadia reduction, use of 480
  trigonometric, marking 375
  useful, for office computations 376
Tabulating latitudes and departures, form for 394
Tachymeter 300
Tangent method of measuring angles 63
  of plotting angles 458
    bearings 468
    traverses 484
Tangent screws for transit 564
Tangents, table of 671
  and curves, area between 408
  to curves 204
Tape (see also Chaining).
  avoidance of mistakes in reading 33
  best form of graduation 560
  best size of 560
  certificate of comparison 561
  change in length due to temperature 40
  cloth 559
  comparison of different kinds 559
  comparison with chain 33
  correction for error in length of tape 40
  errors due to temperature 40
    due to uneven pull 42
    length 39
    not horizontal 40
    marking lengths 42
    not stretched tight 40
    reading 42
  graduation on 560
    best form of 560
  graduation marks 560
  how to read 32
  length of, correction for errors in 40
  metallic 559
  method of testing 562
  mistakes in reading 33
  permanent standard for 561
    Boston water works 562

Tape (*continued*) PAGE
- reading 32
  - avoidance of mistakes in 33
  - common mistakes in 42
  - use of magnifying glass for 42
- reels and handles for 561
- Salt Lake City apparatus for standardizing 562
- special 560
- standardizing 561
  - Salt Lake City apparatus for 562
  - Boston water works permanent standard for 562
- standard pull 42
- steel, band tape 560
  - care of 31, 609
  - chain tape 560
  - pocket tape 560
  - ribbon tape 560
- stretch of, per pound of pull 42
- testing, methods of 562
- three kinds compared 559

Target leveling rods 571
- stadia rod 573

Targets 572
- difference between methods of reading 232
- how to move 252
- with ordinary scale 227
- with verniers 231

Telemeter 300

Telescope 549
- aberration of sphericity 553
- advantages of high power 555
- advantages of non-erecting eyepiece 555
- aperture, test for size of 556
- application of theory of lenses 550
- brightness of image, relation to magnifying power 554
- care of 614
- collimation, line of, defined 553
- comparison of eyepieces 553
- cross hairs, how fastened 550
- cross hair ring, how controlled 550
- defects of 553, 557
- definition 553
- test for 556
- disadvantages of erecting eyepiece 553
- disadvantages of high power 555
- disadvantages of non-erecting eyepiece 553
- effect of too high magnifying power 554
- effect of too low magnifying power 554
- elimination of parallax 555
- eyepiece 549
  - erecting, disadvantages of 553
    - theory of 552
  - how focussed 549
  - non-erecting, advantage of 555

Telescope (*continued*) PAGE
- eyepiece, non-erecting, disadvantage of 553
    - theory of 550
  - two kinds compared 553
  - variable power 555
- eyepiece ring, how controlled 549
- fastening cross hairs 550
- field, flatness of, test for 556
  - size of 554
    - test for 556
- focus 552
- focussing rack and pinion 550
- focussing object glass 549
  - reason for 552
- high magnifying power, advantage of 555
  - effect of 554
- how to use 85
- illumination 554
- image, brightness of in relation to magnifying power 554
- lenses (see also Lenses)
  - application of theory of 550
- level, magnifying power for 555
- level-bubble, relation to magnifying power 545, 555, 568
- light, percent passing through lens 554
  - proportion of, to size of object glass 554
- line of collimation defined 553
- line of sight defined 553
- low magnifying power, effect of 554
- magnifying power, effect of too high 554
  - effect of too low 554
  - for levels 555
  - proportional to aperture 554
  - relation to brightness of image 554
    - to level-bubble 545, 555, 568
    - to vernier 555, 567
  - test for 557
  - transits 555
- non-erecting eyepiece, advantages of 555
  - disadvantages of 553
  - theory of 550
- object glass 549
  - proportion of light to size 554
  - reason for focussing 552
- object glass ring 550
- parallax, how eliminated 555
- percent of light passing through lens 554
- photograph of 551
- plane table, adjustment of 604
- plano-convex lenses in eyepiece 553
- Porro telescope 553
- principles of 557
- prism for stadia 553
- proportion of light to size of object glasses 554

TELESCOPE (*continued*) PAGE
- qualities of................ 553
- rack and pinion for focussing. 550
- reason for focussing object glass.................... 552
- reticle..................... 550
- ring, cross hair............. 550
  - object glass.............. 550
- sextant, adjustment of...... 605
- size of aperture, test for.....556
- size of field..............,.. 554
  - test for.................. 556
- size of object glasses, proportion of light to......... 554
- sphericity, aberration of..... 553
- summary of principles and defects in............... 557
- tests for................... 556
  - definition................ 556
  - flatness of field........... 556
  - magnifying power......... 557
  - size of aperture........... 556
  - size of field.............. 556
- theory of erecting eyepiece.. 552
  - lenses................... 550
  - non-erecting eyepieces.... 550
- two kinds compared......... 553
- use of...................... 227
- variable power............. 555
- vernier, relation to magnifying power............555, 567

Telescope level, adjustment of. 591
- plane table, adjustment..... 604

Temperature, cause of error in chaining. 40

Templet for pavements....... 283

Testing sensitiveness of level-bubble. 545
- tapes, method of........... 562

Tests for compass............ 576
- level...................... 571
- plane table................ 577
- telescopes................. 556
- transits................... 568

Theory of errors............ 15
- of lenses, (see also Lenses).. 545
- of sextant................ 579

Thermometer, use of, in measuring base line............ 57

Three-armed protractor....... 462

Three-point problem.......... 462

Thumbscrews, use in leveling. 88

Tie-lines, use in locating details. 140

Time belts in the United States.................. 622

Time, converted to longitude, table of................ 648
- of elongation of Polaris, table of................ 644
- standard................. 622

Tinting the maps............ 522
- suggestions for............ 449

Titles, for maps...........505, 523
- method of constructing..... 525
- for profiles................ 536
- *for tracings*............... 523

TITLES (*continued*) PAGE
- **what should appear in...... 525**

Topographic maps............ 338
- requirements for **503**

"Topographical **drawing and** sketching"—**Reed.......... 523**

Topographic **surveying......5, 337**
- angles, horizontal, **reading** to contour points......... **343**
- book for topography.... ... **347**
- celluloid sheets, use of...... **348**
- choice of methods and instruments **344**
- choosing stations for **horizon**tal control............... **343**
- choosing stations for **vertical** control **343**
- combination of **methods and** instruments............ **345**
  - illustration of **348**
- contour.................... **337**
  - choosing **intervals**......... **344**
  - illustrations of............ **338**
  - interpolating............. **346**
    - method of............. **343**
  - interval.................. **337**
  - lines..................... **338**
  - located by **squares**........ **341**
  - location of............... **342**
  - method of **locating**....... **343**
  - points, elevation **of**....... **343**
  - running in................ **346**
  - use of.................... **337**
- control, horizontal, **choosing** stations for... .... **343**
  - methods of............... **341**
  - points of, how **established. 340**
- control, vertical, **choosing** stations............... **343**
  - methods of............... **343**
  - points of, how **established. 340**
- controlling points of **contour. 344**
- details, location of.......... **342**
- elevations of contour **points. 343**
  - of primary **stations**....... **343**
  - of traverse **stations**....... **343**
- establishing points of control.................. **340**
  - substations.............. **342**
- field notes................. **346**
- field routine............... **348**
- fundamental **principles** of contour lines............ **339**
- general method............ **339**
- horizontal angles, **reading** to contour points........... **343**
- horizontal control, **choosing** stations for............ **343**
  - establishing points........ **340**
  - methods of............... **341**
- illustrations of............. **348**
- illustrations of **contours**..... **338**
- instruments, choice of...... **344**
  - combination of **methods** and...............**345, 348**
  - use of **different**........... **345**

ic surveying PAGE
ued)
ting a contour...... 340
different methods 343
of contours.....341, 342
ails................ 342
rence lines......... 341
of................ 339
of................ 344
nation of, with in-
ments.........345, 348
ntal control........ 341
g. 343
g contours......... 340
al control........... 343
ontours............ 343
ounted, use of...... 348
aphic plotting...... 348
in the field 347
f control, how estab-
ed................ 340
stations, elevation
.... 343
or, use of.......... 348
horizontal angles to
tour points......... 343
al angles to contour
its................ 343
lines, location of .. 341
meridian.......... 341
e................. 339
in a contour........ 340
ses............... 341
quares............ 341
g topography....... 347
primary, elevations 343
se, elevations of..... 343
ns, establishing..... 342
hic plotting paper.. 348
stations, elevations 343
, running.......... 341
tion............. 341
nes.............. 339
angles, reading to
r points.......... 343
control, choosing
ions for........... 343
ishing points of..... 340
d of............. 343
.... 451
leaning with ben-
.... 452
l inks, use of....... 452
g................ 451
es......... 452
ng figures or letters. 451
y of, for plotting.... 485
in transferring maps. 500
side to use......... 451
.... 452
olored with pencil... 507
.... 507
.... 524
g maps........... 500
ee also Angles, meas-

Transit (*continued*) PAGE
accuracy in setting up...... 89
adjustments of............. 584
  cross hairs............... 586
  plate level............... 584
  principal................ 584
  principal lines............ 584
  relative importance of.... 586
  standards.. 589
  telescope level........... 591
  vernier.................. 591
  vertical circle............ 591
alidade..................... 563
attachments, special........ 566
backsight and foresight..... 90
balancing in.............93, 201
construction requirements.. 567
  of set screws............. 564
  of tangent screws......... 564
cyclotomic.................. 564
cross hairs, adjustment...... 586
deflection angles, measuring. 98
double centering........... 93
double reverse............. 92
eccentricity, test for........ 568
errors in setting up......... 104
errors, source of............ 96
foresight, permanent........ 91
graduation, limb........... 67
  test for................. 568
horizontal angles, measuring.................93, 95
  to turn off............... 99
horizontal plates........... 67
inner spindle.............. 563
laying off an angle by repetition.................. 101
leveling head.............. 563
leveling up................ 89
limb...................... 563
limb graduation............ 67
  system of numbering..... 67
line of sight, to get quickly.. 85
lining in.................. 91
lower plate................ 563
manipulating the tripod..... 88
measuring angles, at fence corner................. 202
  by repetition............ 99
  by series............... 100
measuring deflection angles. 98
  horizontal angles......93, 95
  vertical angles.......... 98
mistakes in reading angles... 98
numbering limb graduations. 67
orienting.. 125
outer spindle.............. 563
permanent backsight........ 90
  foresight............... 91
photograph of............. 565
plate levels, adjustments of. 584
plates, horizontal.......... 67
  lower and upper.......... 563
  vernier................. 563
plumb-bob, use of.......... 85
precautions in using........ 84

Transit (*continued*) PAGE
principal adjustments....... 584
parts of. 563
prolonging a straight line.... 92
reading angles, mistakes in. 98
suggestions for........... 96
bearings................. 101
reading glass, use of........ 98
relative importance of adjustments................ 584
referencing a line........... 203
a point.................. 203
station.................. 203
requirements for construction.................... 567
reverse, double............. 92
reversing in azimuth and altitude................ 92
the telescope............ 86
set-screws, construction of... 564
setting up................. 86
errors in................. 104
setting the vernier.......... 94
several angles from same backsight................ 94
sliding knot, how to tie..... 85
sources of error in measuring angles................ 96
special attachments......... 566
(see also Solar attachment; Gradienter; Telescope; Eye-piece, prismatic; Reflector, Compass-needle; Stadia wires).
spindle, inner and outer..... 563
standard.................. 563
standards, adjustment of.... 589
suggestions for reading angles.................... 96
supporting axis............ 563
system of numbering limb graduations.............. 67
tangent screws, construction of.................. 564
telescope, magnifying power for.................. 555
use of.................. 85
telescope level, adjustment 591
tests for.................. 568
eccentricity of........... 568
graduation of 568
tripod, manipulating........ 88
turning of horizontal angles. 99
upper plate................ 563
use of.................84, 201
backsight and foresight... 90
finding intersection of two straight lines.......... 202
get line of sight quickly.. 85
leveling up.............. 89
lining in................ 91
measuring angle of fence corner................ 202
manipulating the tripod... 88
permanent backsight...... 90
foresight.............. 91

Transit (*continued*)
plumb-bob.............
pre autions.............
reading glass............
referencing a line........
a point..............
reversing the telescope...
setting up, accuracy.....
suggestions for........
sighting parallel to give line.....................
tying sliding knot.......
upper and lower clamps..
using telescope..........
thumbscrews.........
value of level-bubble for...
vernier 7
adjustment of...........
setting.................
suggestions for using.....
vernier plate...............
vertical angles, measuring..
vertical circle, adjustmen
Transit angle, definitio of.......................
Transit lines (see also Traverse
advantage of repeating angl in running...............
angle definition ....
angles, running by.........
application of latitudes an departures..............
azimuth or bearing of firs line....................
azimuth method of running...............12
advantages of...........
comparison of...........
method of procedure.....
outline of...............
bearing of first line........
bearings, calculated, runnin by 126
calculation of..........
running by............
advantages of method..
calculated bearings, runnin by 126
calculation of bearings.....
choosing methods of run ning...................
comparison of methods o running...............
by azimuths............
definition of...............
deflection angles, runnin by....................
advantages of method....
method of procedure.....
details, use of, in locating...
direct angles, running by....
advantages of method....
method of procedure......
how to run................
latitudes and departures, application of.............

TRANSIT lines (*continued*) PAGE
- methods of running 116, 119, 151
  - by angles and calculated bearings 126
  - by azimuths 120, 122, 128, 156
  - by bearings 125, 129
  - by calculated bearings 129
  - choice of 151
  - comparison of 127
  - by deflection angles 120, 128, 155
  - by direct angles 120, 127, 154
  - quadrant method 156
- plotting (see Traverses)
- running, advantage of repeating angles 130
  - summary of method 130
- sketch of 390, 392

Transit party, axeman 163
- chainman 162
- chief of party 161
- flagman 163
- note-keeper 161
- transit-man 162

Transit station, definition of 116
- referencing 203

Transit survey, methods of working 132

Transit surveying, alignment, obstacles to 220
- angles, checking 173
  - double, form for 152
  - single, form for 170
- arc of a circle, to run in 204
- axeman, equipment for 145
- azimuths, form for 174
- balancing-in the transit 201
- base-line, broken 204
- bearings, form for 175
- boundary survey 150, 176
- broken base-line 204
- buildings, survey of 159, 180
- chainman, equipment for 145
- checking angles 152
- chief of party, equipment 145
- city survey 189
- combination method of keeping notes 166
- comparison methods of running transit lines 151
- crowding of notes, to avoid 167
- details, method of locating 156
- dimensions, where to put in field notes 166
- distances, form for 170
- driving guard stakes 147
- duties of members of transit party 161
- equipment for 145
  - axeman and flagman 145
  - chainman 145
  - chief of party 145
  - note-keeper 145
  - transitman 145
- error, limits of 159

TRANSIT surveying (*continued*) PAGE
- error of closure, permissible 160
- establishing station, methods of 147
- excavations, staking out work for 158
- field notes 159, 164
  - combination method of keeping 166
  - different forms of tabulated 169
  - economical forms of 164
  - general form of 165
  - illustrations of 175
  - methods of keeping 164
  - pertaining to transit lines 165
  - repeated in different pages 167
  - sketch method for 165
  - tabulated without sketch, forms of 165
  - transit line, method of distinguishing 165
  - what notes should include 167
  - when notes should read upward 166
  - where to put dimensions in 166
- field work 145
  - effect of choice of stations on 150
  - relation to office work 151
  - relation to 149
- flagman, equipment for 145
- form for azimuths 174
  - bearings 175
  - double angles 173
  - single angles and distances 170
- forms of notes, economical 164
  - general 165
  - tabulated 169
    - without a sketch 165
- formulas for permissible error of closure 161
- guard stakes 147
  - driving 147
  - numbering 147
- height of inaccessible point, to measure 222
- highways, survey of 184
- illustrations of field notes 175
- inaccessible points, to measure between 222
  - to measure height of 222
  - to measure to 222
- instruments and equipment 145
- judgment, questions of 148
- land and building survey 180
- lettering stations 147
- limits of errors in 159
- line, to run between two

TRANSIT surveying (*continued*) PAGE
points through an obstacle.............. 221
locating points in water with two transits..... 203
street lines............ 158
transit stations......... 148
location of stakes, planning 159
transit stations, choosing................. 150
marking stakes........147, 159
masonry structures....... 159
method of distinguishing transit line notes..... 165
establishing station..... 147
general................ 146
keeping notes.......... 164
locating details......... 156
procedure in running transit lines......... 153
running transit lines.... 151
measurements of inaccessible points........... 222
obstacles to............222
note-keeper, equipment for 145
notes (see Field notes).
needed for plotting..... 167
for record............ 167
numbering guard stakes.. 147
points on sketch....... 166
stations.............. 147
obstacle, to prolong straight line through... 220
to run line between two points through....... 221
obstacles 148, 219
to alignment in........ 220
to measurements in.... 222
office work, relation to..... 149
relation to field work... 151
parallels................. 224
permissible error of closure. 160
perpendiculars........... 224
plotting, notes needed for. 167
pocket equipment for..... 145
points, inaccessible....... 222
points in sketch, numbering................. 166
points on water, to locate with two transits.... 203
problems in triangulation. 219
prolong straight line through obstacle....... 220
purpose of survey........ 148
record, notes needed for.. 167
referencing stakes........ 159
station 148
relation between field work and office work...... 151
to field work.......... 149
to office work......... 149
repeating notes on different pages............. 167
run-in an arc of a circle... 204

TRANSIT surveying (*continued*) PAGE
running a line through an obstacle.............. 221
running transit lines...... 151
signals................... 146
sketch method for field notes. 165
sketch, numbering points in 166
of transit line 168
special work.............. 201
stakes, planning location of 159
marking...........147, 159
referencing............ 159
staking out work......... 158
stations, effect on field work of choice of 150
numbering and lettering................ 147
methods of establishing. 147
referencing............ 148
street lines, locating...... 158
suggestions for running transit lines......... 152
for staking out work.... 159
survey, boundary.....150, 176
city................... 189
highways............... 184
land and buildings...... 180
purpose of... 148
system of staking out work.................. 159
tabulated notes, different forms of............... 169
things to make clear in... 168
transit lines, general sketch of........... 168
methods of running..... 151
method of distinguishing notes............ 165
notes pertaining to..... 165
transitman, equipment.. 145
transit party............ 145
duties of members of... 161
transit stations.......... 146
choosing location of.... 150
locating............... 148
referencing............ 148
triangulation, problems in. 219
uniform system of staking out work.......... 159
Transit traverse (see also Traverse lines).. 119
Transiting the telescope...... .86
Trapizium, area of............ 407
Trapezoid, area of............ 407
Trapezoidal rule for areas..... 411
Traverses, closed............. 118
comparison of methods of plotting................. 475
error of closure............. 119
explanation of............. 117
five methods of plotting..... 482
methods of plotting.... .463, 482
by azimuth......... 471, 484
by bearings......... 471
by chord method......... 484

TRAVERSES (*continued*) PAGE
  methods of plotting by latitude and departures, 472, 474, 484
    checks 474
    illustrations of 474
   by tangent method 484
  running, in topographic surveying 341
Traverse boards 318, 577
Traverse lines, checks for 465
  importance of, in plotting 463
  plotting by bearings 467
   by chord method 465
   by deflection angles 466
   by direct angles 464
   by tangent method 465
Traverse stations, elevations of, in topographic surveying 343
Traverse tables, Boileau's 387
Triangles, area of 407
  astronomical 620
  proportions of 219
  testing 439
  use of 438
Triangulation, angles, adjustment of 199
   maximum and minimum size 191
   measuring 194, 218
   which to measure 194
  base line, apparatus for measuring 194
   broken 193
   choosing location of 193
   effect of error in measurement 192
   length of 194
   principal measure 194
   transferred or expanded 193
  for bridge piers 216
  choice of location of base line 193
   stations 192
  conditions for 192
  curvature of earth, error from neglecting 191
  definition of 118, 191
  diameter of mast for signal 199
  eccentricity of stations 199
  errors, effect of, in measurement of base line 192
   from neglecting curvature of earth 191
   from poorly proportioned triangles 191
   limits of 199
   reducing in measurement of angles 192
   sources of 191
  favorable conditions for 193
  field notes for 198
  general method of 191
  limits of errors 199
  expanded base line 193
  length of base line 194

TRIANGULATION (*continued*) PAGE
  maximum and minimum size of angles 191
  measurement of angles 218
   form of notes for 196
   general methods of 194
   illustration of 196
   method of procedure 195
   method of repetition 195
   reducing errors in 192
   which angles to measure 194
  measurement of base line, apparatus for 194
   effect of error in 192
   principal 194
  net work of triangles 191
  notes, forms of in measurement of angles 196
  principal measure of base line 194
  problems in 219
  proper diameter of mast for signal 199
  reducing errors in measurement of angles 192
  requirements for stations 192
  signals 192
   for stations 198
   proper diameter of mast 199
  sources of error 191
  stations, choice of 192
   eccentricity of 199
   requirements for 192
   signals for 198
  transferred base line 193
  triangles, network of 191
   poorly proportioned, error 191
  unfavorable conditions for 191
Triangulation net, plotting 493
Trigonometer, description of 383
Trigonometric formulas 640
  leveling 200, 243, 264
   accuracy of method 264
   use of stadia methods 305, 308
  relations between bearing, length, latitude and departure 400
  tables, numbering of places used 375
   in office computations 373
Trigonometrical principles of curves 204
Tripod, care of 617
  for compass 576
  suggestions for manipulating 88
Tripod head for plane-table 577
  supports, use in chaining base line 58
True bearing of a line 112
  error of measurement 9
  meridian 359
Truncated prism, definition of 429
T-square, testing edge of 438
  use of 438
Tunnel, to give lines for 215
Turnbuckles, use of in chaining base line 58

PAGE
Turning points 238
  in leveling 252

Units of measurement in surveying 3
Upper plate of transit 563
Ursa Major 355
Ursa Minor 355
Use of drawing instruments 438

Value of a quantity, most probable 15
Values of measurements 13
Values numerical, in field notes 21, 22
Vara, unit of measurement; equivalents 3
Variations of declinations of magnetic needle 541
  of magnetic needle, table of 643
Vaseline, use of 618
Vernier 538
  adjustment of 591
  cleaning 612
  danger points in reading 539
  determining the least count 76
  direct 540
  double, how to read 76
  folded 83
  how to read 76
  illustrated 77, 538
  least count of 538
    to determine 76, 540
  leveling rods 540
  mistakes in reading 77
  mistakes in setting 75
  principle of 538
  reading 76, 539
    danger points in 539
    mistakes in 77
    to minutes 78
    30 seconds 80
    20 seconds 91
    10 seconds 82
  relation to magnifying power of telescope 555
  retrograde 83, 540
    how to read 540
    on leveling rods 540
  setting 94

VERNIER (*continued*) PAGE
  setting, mistakes in 75
    on sextants 83
  special forms of 83
  suggestions for using 96
Vernier arm for sextant 578
Vernier compass 576
Vernier plate for transit 563
Vernier target 572
Vertical angles, measuring 98
    with sextant 579
Vertical circle, adjustment of 591
    plane-table 604
Vertical control, choosing stations 344
    method of 343
Vertical line defined 1
Vertical measurements; distances; angles; explained 2
Vertical parabola from chord gradients 290
  connecting two grades 291
  field work of staking out 291
  formula for 290, 292
  making pass through a given point 291
  staking out, comparison of methods 291
  tangent deflections 290
Vertical plane defined 1

Watch oil, use of 618
Watches, use of in keeping track of angles 203
Water-colors, how to mix 450
  use of 449
Water-lining 522
Water-table 209, 212
Weights of observations:
  found by means of probable errors 16
Wye-level 569
  adjustments of 592
    bubble-tube 594
    cross hairs 593
    principal adjustments 592
    principal lines 592
    the wyes 596
  value of level-bubble for 545

Zenith 621

EXERCISES IN SURVEYING

FOR

FIELD WORK AND OFFICE WORK

WITH

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

INTENDED FOR USE IN CONNECTION WITH THE
AUTHOR'S BOOK

PLANE SURVEYING

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PREFACE.

THIS book of exercises is intended for use in connection with the author's book on "Plane Surveying." Part I consists of exercises in field work grouped according to the nature of the work. Part II consists of exercises in office computations and in plotting. (See page 110.) The whole constitutes a thorough introductory course in fundamental principles and methods. So far as the author is aware, this is the first attempt to offer a collection of problems in both field work and office work, and the first book of exercises to be published for use in connection with a text-book.

The author is convinced from his own experience that the most effective course in field work is not that in which the chief aim is to make a complete survey of a more or less extensive territory. On the contrary, much time may be lost in undertaking work for which the student is not prepared, and still more may be wasted in requiring the student to repeat the same kind of work day after day merely to cover a given amount of territory. It is far better to begin with a systematic course of exercises which shall serve not only as a preliminary drill in the use of instruments, but also as a careful study of the various methods which underlie all surveying. Not only will the student be better prepared for subsequent courses in municipal, mining, railway and geodetic surveying, but the effect of such a thorough introductory course will be felt after graduation in whatever kind of surveying he may be engaged. For this reason such a course may well extend over the first two college years.

A feature of this book will be found in the questions suggested for discussion at the end of nearly every exercise. Some years ago the author adopted the practice of holding quizzes in the field in connection with each new piece of work. For example, an instructor has charge of a small squad of men to whom problems in chaining have been assigned. As soon as the work is finished, he gathers his men about him, and questions them on various matters pertaining to chaining, such, for example, as the use of the steel tape, the sources of error, different methods of doing the work just completed and the advantages and disadvantages of these methods. In some other part of the field another instructor may be holding a similar quiz on leveling or on transit work. These quizzes, if properly conducted, often develop into interesting discussions in which many important points are brought out that would entirely escape the student if he were merely required to do the field work assigned. Moreover, the student may be expected to take his text-book into the field with him, and to spend such spare time as he may have in looking up answers to questions which he knows will be asked at the end of the exercise. A great deal of the recitation work usually held in the class-room will be much more effective if it is transferred to the field in this way. If, however, it is found inexpedient to hold these quizzes and discussions in the field, the questions may still be used by the earnest student to develop his knowledge of the subject. They should prove particularly valuable to young men in practice who are seeking to perfect themselves in the art of surveying.

In most courses it probably will be found necessary to omit some of the exercises given in this book. It is suggested, however, that the student be held responsible for answers to the questions in the omitted exercises, and that, if possible, these questions be made a basis for class-room discussion.

Unless otherwise stated, all paragraph and page references are to the author's text-book and not to this book.

JOHN C. TRACY.

NEW HAVEN, CONNECTICUT.
June, 1909.

INDEX OF GROUPS.

PART I.—FIELD WORK.

GROUP PAGES
E. Introductory Exercises (*For the Classroom.*) 1–5
C. Exercises in Chaining 6–17
T. Exercises in the Use of the Transit 18–28
Tr. Exercises in Running Transit Lines 29–37
Ts. Transit Surveys 38–41
Tp. Special Problems in Transit Surveying 42–50
L. Exercises in Leveling 51–62
Lp. Special Problems in Leveling 63–68
Co. Exercises in the Use of the Compass 69–72
S. Exercises in the Use of the Stadia 73–78
P. Exercises in the Use of the Plane Table 79–83
To. Exercises in Topographic Surveying 84–88
M. Exercises in Determining a True Meridian 89–94
I. A Study of Surveying Instruments 95–101
A. Adjustments 102–109

PART II.—OFFICE WORK.

G. General Methods of Computation 111–115
B. Calculation of Bearings 116–120
L. Latitudes and Departures 121–124
T. Triangulation 125–127
O. Omitted Measurements 128–136
A. Areas 137–143
E. Earthwork Calculation 144–150
P. Exercises in Plotting 151–160
Q. Questions Pertaining to Mapping 161–168

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PART I. — FIELD WORK.

GROUP E.

Introductory Exercises.

(For the Classroom.)

EXERCISE PAGE

E-1. Definitions, Fundamental Principles and General Methods........ 1

E-2. General Discussion of Errors........ 3

E-3. General Discussion of Field Notes........ 5

E-4. Single Stroke Lettering........ 5

GROUP C.

Exercises in Chaining.

C-1. Reading a Chain Tape........ 6

C-2. Chaining Distances Greater than the Length of the Tape........ 7

C-3. Chaining on a Slope........ 8

C-4. Standardizing the Tape........ 8

C-5. Experiments with a Steel Tape........ 9

C-6. Measuring a Base Line........ 10

C-7. A Chain Survey of an Irregular Polygon........ 11

C-8. To Chain from a Given Point over the Brow of a Hill to Another Point........ 11

C-9. Laying Out a Right Angle with a Tape by the 3-4-5 Method........ 12

C-10. To Erect a Perpendicular with a Tape at Any Point in a Line........ 12

C-11. To Run One Line Parallel to Another Line........ 13

C-12. To Measure between Two Points When a Corner of a Building Intervenes........ 13

C-13. To Measure to an Inaccessible Point........ 13

C-14. To Measure the Angles of a Triangle with a Tape........ 14

C-15. A Chain Survey of a Plot of Ground with Irregular Boundary Lines and Containing Buildings........ 15

C-16. Discussion of Errors in Linear Measurements........ 16

GROUP T.

Exercises in the use of the Transit.

EXERCISE PAGE
T-1. Setting up a Transit.... 18
T-2. Prolonging a Straight Line.... 19
T-3. Balancing in a Transit.... 20
T-4. Reading the Limb of a Transit.... 20
T-5. Reading Angles (Limb and Vernier).... 22
T-6. Measuring Horizontal Angles with a Transit.... 23
T-7. Practice in Doubling Horizontal Angles.... 24
T-8. Measuring Vertical Angles with a Transit.... 24
T-9. To Find the Intersection of Two Lines of Sight.... 25
T-10. To Establish a Line of Sight Parallel to a Fence or to a Building.... 26
T-11. To Measure an Angle Formed by Two Intersecting Lines Without Setting up over Either Line.... 26
T-12. Discussion of the Errors in Angular Measurement.. 27

GROUP Tr.

Exercises in Running Transit Lines.

Tr-1. Survey of a Triangle or Polygon by the Direct Angle Method.... 30
Tr-2. Measuring the Exterior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon.... 31
Tr-3. Doubling the Interior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon.... 31
Tr-4. Doubling the Exterior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon.... 31
Tr-5. Measuring the Interior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon, and Checking by Calculated Bearings.. 32
Tr-6. Measuring the Interior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon to the Left.... 33
Tr-7. Measuring the Exterior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon to the Left.... 33
Tr-8. Measuring the Deflection Angles of a Triangle or Polygon.... 34
Tr-9. Survey of a Triangle or Polygon by the First Azimuth Method.... 34
Tr-10. Survey of a Triangle or Polygon by the Second Azimuth Method.... 36
Tr-11. Survey of a Triangle or Polygon by the Method of Bearings.... 36
Tr-12. Questions on the Methods of Running Transit Lines or Traverses.... .. 37

GROUP Ts.

Transit Surveys.

EXERCISE PAGE
Ts–1. Discussion of the Methods of Locating Details..... 38
Ts–2. Discussion of the Methods of Keeping Field Notes. 39
Ts–3. Discussion of Practical Questions of Field Work in Transit Surveying........................... 40
Ts–4. Transit Survey of a Small Area................. 41

GROUP Tp.

Special Problems in Transit Surveying.

Tp–1. Practice in Triangulation....................... 42
Tp–2. To Prolong a Straight Line through an Obstacle... 43
Tp–3. To Run a Line between Two Given Points When an Obstacle Intervenes...................... 44
Tp–4. To Measure between Two Points When One is Inaccessible................................. 44
Tp–5. To Measure between Two Points When Both are Inaccessible................................. 45
Tp–6. To Measure the Height of an Inaccessible Point.... 45
Tp–7. Perpendiculars and Parallels.................... 46
Tp–8. To Stake Out a Building......................... 46
Tp–9. To Locate Piers for a Bridge.................... 48
Tp–10. To Stake Out a Circle with a Transit and a Tape.. 49

GROUP L.

Exercises in Leveling.

L–1. Setting up the Level........................... 51
L–2. Reading the Leveling Rod....................... 52
L–3. To Find the Probable Error of Sighting and of Setting a Target................................ 53
L–4. Comparison of Readings Taken With and Without the Target.................................. 54
L–5. To Test the Sensitiveness of a Level Bubble....... 54
L–6. Differential Leveling........................... 55
(*A Study of the Theory.*)
L–7. Differential Leveling........................... 56
(*A Study of Field Methods.*)
L–8. Profile Leveling............................... 58
L–9. Discussion of Errors in Leveling................ 58
L–10. Use of the Hand Level......................... 60
L–11. Trigonometric Leveling........................ 60
L–12. Barometric Leveling.......................... 62

GROUP Lp.

Special Problems in Leveling.

EXERCISE PAGE
Lp-1. Reciprocal Leveling 63
Lp-2. To Set Stakes on a Grade Between Two Fixed Points (*Special Method*) 63
Lp-3. To Set Grade Stakes between Two Fixed Points When the Ground is Uneven 65
Lp-4. Use of the Gradienter 66
Lp-5. To Estimate Cut and Fill for Grading 66
Lp-6. To Stake Out a Vertical Curve 67

GROUP Co.

Exercises in the Use of the Compass.

Co-1. The Error of Sighting and Reading a Compass 69
Co-2. Reading Bearings 70
Co-3. Compass Survey of a Polygon 71

GROUP S.

Exercises in the Use of the Stadia.

S-1. To Test the Stadia Interval 73
S-2. To Measure Distances on Level Ground by the Stadia 74
S-3. To Measure Horizontal Distances on Sloping Ground by the Stadia 75
S-4. To Obtain Vertical Distances or Elevations by the Stadia 75
S-5. Stadia Survey of a Polygon. 77
(*Azimuth Method.*)

GROUP P.

Exercises in the Use of the Plane Table.

P-1. Plane-table Survey of a Polygon 79
(*Method of Radiation.*)
P-2. Plane-table Survey of a Polygon 80
(*Method of Progression, or Traversing.*)
P-3. Plane-table Survey of a Polygon 80
(*Method of Radio-Progression.*)
P-4. Plane-table Survey of a Polygon 81
(*Method of Intersection.*)
P-5. Plane-table Survey of a Polygon 81
(*Method of Resection.*)
P-6. Discussion of Plane-table Surveying 81
P-7. Plane-table Practice in the Three-point Problem ... 82

GROUP To.

Exercises in Topographic Surveying.

EXERCISE PAGE
To–1. Running in a Contour 84
To–2. Topographic Survey of a Small Area 85
(*Direct Method of Running in Contours with a Spirit Level.*)
To–3. Topographic Survey of a Small Area 86
(*Contours Interpolated by Spirit Leveling.*)
To–4. Topographic Survey of a Small Area 86
(*Contours Interpolated by the Vertical-Angle Method.*)
To–5. Questions Pertaining to Topographic Surveying 87

GROUP M.

Exercises in Determining a True Meridian.

M–1. Determination of a Meridian by Observations on Polaris at Elongation 89
M–2. Determination of a Meridian by a Single Observation on the Sun 91
M–3. Determination of a Meridian with a Solar Attachment 93

GROUP I.

A Study of Surveying Instruments.

I–1. The Vernier, the Magnetic Needle and the Level Bubble 95
I–2. Theory of Lenses 96
I–3. The Telescope 97
I–4. Chains and Tapes 98
I–5. The Transit 98
I–6. The Level 99
I–7. Leveling Rods and Stadia Rods 99
I–8. The Compass, the Plane Table and the Sextant 100
I–9. The Care of Instruments 100

GROUP A.

Adjustments.

A–1. Preliminary Discussion of Adjustments 102
A–2. Adjustments of the Transit 103
A–3. Adjustments of the Wye-Level 105
A–4. Adjustments of the Dumpy Level 107
A–5. Adjustments of the Compass 108
A–6. Adjustments of the Plane Table 108
A–7. Adjustments of the Sextant 109

PART II.—OFFICE WORK.

GROUP G.

General Methods of Computation.

EXERCISE P

G–1. Short Cuts in Arithmetical Work.................. 1
G–2. Consistent Accuracy in Computations.............. 1
G–3. Trigonometric Relations Between the Sides of a Right-Angled Triangle........................ 1
G–4. Use of Logarithms............................ 1

GROUP B.

Calculation of Bearings.

B–1. Calculation of Bearings from Angles............ 1
B–2. Changing the Bearings of All Lines of a Traverse by a Given Amount.................. 1
B–3. Calculation of Angles from Bearings 1

GROUP L.

Latitudes and Departures.

L. Calculation of Latitudes and Departures 1

GROUP T.

Triangulation.

T–1. Computations for Triangulations.................. 1
T–2. Miscellaneous Problems in Triangulation.......... 1

GROUP O.

Omitted Measurements.

O–1. To Calculate the Bearing and Length of an Omitted Side of a Polygon......................... 1
O–2. To Calculate the Omitted Bearing of One Side and the Omitted Length of Another Side of a Polygon. 1
O–3. To Calculate the Omitted Lengths of Two Sides of a Polygon........................... 1
O–4. To Calculate the Omitted Bearings of Two Sides of a Polygon.............................. 1
O–5. Calculation of Omitted Measurements............ 1
(*Miscellaneous Problems*)

GROUP A.

Areas.

EXERCISE PAGE
A-1. The Use of the Planimeter........................ 137
A-2. To Compute Areas Directly from Field Measurements.. 137
A-3. Calculation of Areas from Offsets................ 138
A-4. Calculation of Areas from Latitudes and Double Longitudes.................................. 139
A-5. To Part Off a Required Area by a Line Having a Given Direction.............................. 141
A-6. To Part Off a Required Area by a Line Starting from a Given Point.......................... 142

GROUP E.

Earthwork Calculation.

E-1. To Calculate Earthwork by the Method of Unit Areas.. 144
(All Cut or all Fill.)
E-2. To Calculate Earthwork by the Method of Unit Areas.. 146
(Irregular Boundaries.)
E-3. To Estimate Cut and Fill by the Method of Unit Areas.. 147
E-4. To Calculate Cut and Fill by the Method of Unit Areas.. 148
(Irregular Boundaries.)
E-5. Calculation of Earthwork for Ditches and Embankments.. 149
E-6. To Estimate Cut and Fill from a Contour Map.... 150

GROUP P.

Exercises in Plotting.

P-1. Use of Drawing Instruments...................... 151
P-2. Methods of Plotting Angles...................... 153
P-3. Plotting Traverses with a Protractor............. 155
P-4. Tangent Method of Plotting Traverses........... 156
P-5. Chord Method of Plotting Traverses............. 156
P-6. Plotting Traverses by Bearings.................. 157
(Tangent Method.)
P-7. Plotting Traverses by Bearings.................. 158
(Chord Method.)
P-8. Plotting Traverses by Azimuths................. 158
P-9. Plotting Traverses by Latitudes and Departures... 159
P-10. Plotting the Survey on Page 184............... 160

GROUP Q.

Questions Pertaining to Mapping.

EXERCISE PAGE
Q-1. Working up Field Notes Preparatory to Plotting... 161
Q-2. Plotting the Map.. 162
Q-3. Plotting Traverses...................................... 163
Q-4. Plotting Details.. 164
Q-5. Finishing the Map...................................... 165
Q-6. Profiles.. 168

Exercises in Plane Surveying.

PART I.

FIELD WORK.

GROUP E.

INTRODUCTORY EXERCISES.

This group of exercises, consisting principally of questions for class-room discussion, are intended to cover those fundamental principles and methods which the student should know before beginning field work. The exercise on single-stroke lettering is inserted for the benefit of students who have not had a systematic course in freehand lettering.

Exercise E-1.

Definitions, Fundamental Principles and General Methods.

Reference: Chapter I, pp. 1–8.

Questions: 1. What is meant in geodesy by the earth's surface? p. 1. 2. When is it necessary to make this distinction in ordinary surveying? 3. What is the shape of the earth's surface? 4. What is the average radius? 5. What is the difference in lengths between the long and short axes, expressed in miles? 6. What is meant by sea-level, and how can it be determined at any given place? 7. Define horizontal plane; vertical plane. 8. What is the difference between a horizontal plane and a level surface? 9. What is the significance of the two terms "plane" and "geodetic" as applied to surveying? p. 2. 10. What is the approximate curvature of the earth's surface per mile? 11. How large an area may be covered by the methods of plane surveying without involving appreciable errors? 12. Give the approximate difference in length between the arc on the earth's surface and a straight line. 13. What four kinds of measurements are made in plane surveying? (Illustrate by means of a sketch.) 14. If a farm is on a side hill, would a map of that farm show the actual area of the surface? 15. What are the units of linear measurement used in surveying in the United States? p. 3. 16. What are the units of angular measurement? 17. In making certain kinds of surveys, as for example, a survey for an architect, is it ever customary for the surveyor to measure in feet and inches? 18. What is a convenient method of converting hundredths of a foot to fractions of an inch? 19. From the table on page 650, change 6 feet 4⅛ inches to feet and decimals of a foot. 20. What is the standard yard? p. 3. 21. In this country where may a steel tape be sent to be compared with a standard length? p. 561. 22. What is the equivalent of one metre in feet? p. 3. What is the equivalent of one vara in inches? 23. What other units of measurements are sometimes used? 24. Why was 66 feet adopted as the length of Gunter's chain? 25. How would you record eight chains, six links? p. 33, § 49. 26. Reduce sixty links to feet? 27. Explain the method of locating a given point with reference to two other points by linear measurements only. p. 4. 28. Explain two methods of locating a point by angle and distance. 29. Explain the method of locating a point by angles only. 30. Explain two other methods of locating a point. 31. Into what three parts may the work of a surveyor be divided? p. 5. 32. Of what does the field work consist? 33. Of what does the office work consist? 34. Name some of the important questions in surveying which arise in connection with field work. p. 6. 35. Explain by different illustrations how the purpose of a survey helps to decide some of these questions. 36. What can you say regarding limits of error and consistent accuracy? p. 7. 37. Upon what does speed depend? p. 8. 38. How does system in surveying diminish the chances of error?

Exercise E-2.

General Discussion of Errors.

Reference: Chapter II, pages 9 to 19.

Questions: 1. What is the true error of any measurement? p. 9. 2. Why is the true error never known? 3. In general, what are the three sources of error? 4. What are the three classes of error? 5. Explain carefully the difference between constant errors and accidental errors. p. 10. 6. Can the constant error involved in any measurement be reduced by repeating the measurement a number of times and taking the mean of all the measurements? 7. What is the object in repeating the measurements and taking the mean? 8. Give a few illustrations of what is meant by mistakes; accidental errors; constant errors? 9. Why may variations in sources of constant error be classed as accidental errors? p. 11. 10. How may constant errors from different sources tend to balance each other? 11. How may constant errors from the same source tend to balance each other? 12. Explain the difference between cumulative and compensating errors. 13. Explain the difference between discrepancy and error. 14. How can the discrepancy between two measurements be small yet the error large? p. 12. 15. What can you say as regards the elimination of constant errors? 16. How may mistakes be eliminated? 17. Illustrate how constant errors may be eliminated. 18. How may accidental errors be reduced? p. 13. 19. What can you say as regards the relative importance of errors from different sources? 20. What is meant by an appreciable error? 21. What is the most probable value of a quantity, when several measurements have been made of that quantity? 22. When the sum of several measurements should equal the exact quantity, how is the *true* error distributed? p. 14. 23. If the *true* error of a measurement is never known, how can the error of 1′ or 60″, in the illustration on page 14, Case 1, be called a *true* error? 24. Explain by illustration how the discrepancy should be distributed, when the sum of several measurements should equal some other measurement. 25. Why, in Case 2, p. 14, is the term "discrepancy" used instead of "error"?

Questions on the Method of Least Squares: 26. What use is made of the method of least squares? p. 15. 27. Upon what assumption is this method based? 28. How do the conditions in practice differ from those of the assumption? 29. What effect has this on a most probable value of a quantity as determined by the method of least squares, and how may the probable value be made to approach the true value? 30. Define residual; probable error. 31. In surveying, what use is made of most probable values; probable errors? 32. Illustrate how by comparing the probable errors of the means of two sets of observations, the precision of one mean may be compared with that of the other. p. 16. 33. Explain the use made of the probable error of a single observation. 34. How can the weights which should be given to different sets of observations be found from the probable errors? 35. Upon what three assumptions are the formulas for calculating probable errors based? p. 17. 36. What additional point should be kept in mind? 37. In order that probable errors may be of any significance, what precautions must be taken? (See Remark, p. 17.) 38. Two chainmen measure a line six times with the following results in feet: 314.124, 314.130, 314.133, 314.128, 314.136, and 314.131. Two other chainmen measure the same line with the following results in feet: 314.134, 314.124, 314.138, 314.122, 314.131, and 314.122. What is the relative precision of the work of the two pairs of chainmen? (See illustration, p. 19.) 39. An angle is measured with a transit eight different times. The degrees and minutes being the same but the seconds varying as follows: 20″, 40″, 30″, 10″, 20″, 50″, 30″, and 40″. The same angle was measured with another transit with the following result: 40″, 20″, 20″, 30″, 40″, 30″, 30″, and 40″. Other things being equal, which is the better instrument? What degree of precision may be expected for each instrument in measuring a given angle under conditions similar to those prevailing when the above angles were measured?

Exercise E-3.

General Discussion of Field Notes.

Reference: Chapter III, pages 20 to 30.

Questions: 1. What are field notes? 2. What can you say as regards methods of keeping notes? 3. Give general suggestions for keeping notes. p. 21. 4. Into what three parts may field notes be divided? 5. Give general suggestion for recording numerical values. p. 22. 6. Give general suggestions for making sketches. p. 23. 7. Give general suggestions concerning explanatory notes. 8. What style of lettering should be used? p. 24. 9. What is a good height for letters? p. 29. 10. How should the letters be spaced? 11. Give additional suggestions for taking notes. p. 29. 12. Discuss special directions for class work. p. 30.

Exercise E-4.

Single Stroke Lettering.

Reference: Article 38, pages 24 to 30.

Directions: In this exercise use a 4H pencil and smooth white paper with hard surface. Sharpen the pencil to a fine point. At first, draw a bottom guide line for letters; later, practice lettering without a guide line. In forming the various letters and figures pay particular attention to the direction and sequence of the strokes in each letter and learn the peculiar characteristics of each. The stem of a letter which extends above or below the body of the letter should not be made too long — a common mistake.

(*a*) Print the entire alphabet of lower case letters, grouping them in five groups : adgq, bp, ceos, hmnu, and fijklrtvwxyz. (See p. 25.) Repeat this exercise several times.

(*b*) Print the capital letters of the alphabet, grouping them as follows: EFHIKLMNTZ, AVWXY, BPR, CGOQ, and SJDU. (See p. 28.) Repeat this exercise several times.

(*c*) Practice making the numerals from 1 to 0. (See p. 27.)

(*d*) Rule bottom guide lines about a quarter of an inch apart, and print in single stroke lettering, with the letters spaced as closely together as possible, the introductory note on page XXVII.

GROUP C.

EXERCISES IN CHAINING.

The first six exercises of this group offer the student an opportunity to form correct habits in the use of the steel tape, and, by a study of the sources of error, to learn what precautions must be taken to attain a given degree of precision. The remaining exercises involve special problems in chaining, most of which are based on well known geometric constructions. If it is necessary to omit any of these latter problems in the field, the omitted problems may be given in the class-room as blackboard exercises, and the corresponding questions discussed by the class.

Exercise C-1.

Reading a Chain Tape.

References: Page 32, § 48; p. 33, § 50 (a) (b) (c) (d).

Equipment: Chain tape and chain pins.

Directions: 1. On a level piece of ground, stick two chain pins at random about 50 feet apart. 2. Measure the distance between these two pins to the nearest tenth of a foot. 3. Repeat the measurement, the two chainmen interchanging positions.

Questions: 1. Why should the chainman at the end of the tape make the final reading? § 50 (c). 2. Why should the other chainman read the number on each side of the required reading? p. 33. 3. What kind of tape may be used to render these precautions unnecessary? § 50 (d). 4. Does the surveyor use decimal parts of a foot or inches? p. 3. 5. When would it be desirable to use a tape graduated to inches? 6. Are linear measurements in surveying ever made along an inclined surface? p. 2. 7. What is the equivalent of one vara in inches? p. 3. 8. What is the equivalent of one meter in feet? p. 3. 9. What other units of measurements are sometimes used? p. 3. 10. Why was 66 feet adopted as the length of Gunter's chain? p. 3. 11. What is a convenient method of converting hundredths of a foot to fractions of an inch? p. 3. 12. What is the difference between Gunter's chain and an Engineer's chain? p. 559. 13. How would you record 10 chains 7 links? p. 33, § 49. 14. Compare the three kinds of tapes. p. 559. 15. What are the relative merits of a chain and a tape? Remark, p. 33. 16. Describe the different kinds of steel tapes, and the standard methods of graduating tapes. pp. 560, 561.

Exercise C-2.

Chaining Distances Greater than the Length of the Tape.

References: Page 34, § 50 (e) and (f), § 51 and § 52; p. 37, § 56, 1–12.

Equipment: Two range poles; steel tape and chain pins.

Directions: 1. Ascertain just what points to take for the ends of the tape. 2. Set two chain pins about 300 or 400 feet apart on comparatively level ground. 3. Chain the distance between these two pins. 4. Repeat the measurement, the two chainmen interchanging positions. By means of the tape tables on pages 48 and 49 ascertain whether the discrepancy between the two measurements indicates poor work or good work.

Suggestions: Special attention should be paid by the instructor to the method of sticking the pins as this is usually the source of greatest error on level ground. Insist on the use of signals, page 35, and caution men in regard to pulling up pins that mark the ends of a line.

Questions: 1. What is the approximate pull used in ordinary chaining? p. 42, § 65. 2. Why should the pins be stuck at right angles to the line? 3. How are the pins used to keep count of tape lengths? 4. How can the head chainman keep himself approximately in line? 5. In accurate work what precaution should be taken after each pin is stuck? p. 37, § 56 (12). 6. If there is a slight difference between the first and second measurements of the line, what is this difference called? p. 11, § 20. 7. If this discrepancy is small, is the error of chaining necessarily small? p. 11, §§ 20, 21. 8. If the tape used in measuring is too long or too short, is this a source of constant error? p. 10. 9. Are the errors from sticking the pins cumulative or compensating? p. 11, also p. 42, § 66. 10. If in lining in, pins are set as much as 6 inches first one side, then the other of the line, will the resulting error be comparatively large or small? p. 41, § 63, p. 51, § 76. 11. How may the error in chaining be expressed by a ratio? p. 39, § 58. 12. If a line is measured with a tape that is too long will the result be too long or too short, and what is the corresponding algebraic sign? p. 39, § 59. 13. What are some of the things a chainman should do? 14. What are some of the things a chainman should not do? p. 38. 15. If in chaining a line AB whose true length is 400 feet, the first pin is stuck 18 inches to the left of the line, the second pin 16 inches to the right, the third pin 24 inches to the right, what would be the difference between the true length and the measured length of AB, provided no other errors are involved? 16. If in measuring along a line the end of the tape should fall at a place where a pin cannot be stuck, as, for example, in the middle of a brook, how would you proceed?

Exercise C-3.

Chaining on a Slope.

References: Page 35, § 53.

Equipment: Steel tape, chain pins, range poles, plumb bob.

Directions: 1. Measure the distance between two points on a comparatively steep slope by the second method, page 36, working down hill. 2. Repeat the measurement, chaining again down hill, but the two chainmen interchanging positions. 3. By means of the tables on pages 48 and 49, ascertain whether the discrepancy between the two measurements indicates work that is excellent, good, fair or passable.

Suggestions: 1. Pay special attention to throwing the weight of the body against the arm in holding the down-hill end of the tape. p. 36. 2. If the pin is stuck upright it interferes with the plumb bob — one reason for sticking it in slanting at right angles to the line. 3. A common error is the holding of the down-hill end of the tape too low. The instructor, standing opposite the middle of the tape, should watch this at first. 4. Three men can work to much better advantage than two in chaining on a slope.

Questions: 1. Why is it better to chain down hill than up hill? 2. If a line is chained on the slope instead of in horizontal stretches, how may the result be corrected? Page 35, § 53 (a).

Exercise C-4.

Standardizing the Tape.

References: Pages 39-44 and p. 561.

Equipment: Steel tape to be tested; scale, spring balance, turnbuckles, thermometer, magnifying glass.

Directions: Assuming that a permanent standard has already been established, proceed as directed for "Testing the Tape," page 562. 2. Repeat the test two or more times.

Suggestion: Sometimes in place of a permanent standard such as that *escribed* on page 562, the tape is compared with a standard tape of known *th, kept* for that purpose.

FORM OF NOTES.

Tape Tested.	Observed Length.	Temperature.	Correction for Temp.	Corrected Length.

Questions: 1. What are the usual standard temperatures and standard pulls for a 100 foot steel tape? Pages 561 and 42. 2. What is the average change in length for each 15 degrees change in temperature? p. 40, § 62 (a). 3. What is the average change in length per 15 pounds pull? p. 43, § 69 (7). 4. Where can a tape be sent for standardizing? p. 561. 5. What are some of the conditions to be fulfilled in any device for standardizing tapes? p. 561. 6. What was the object in using a steel strip for the standard of the Boston Water Works? p. 562. 7. A line measured with a 100 foot tape is found to be 826.34 feet long. What was the true length of the line, (a) if the tape was 100.024 feet long? (b) if the tape was 99.87 feet long? 8. Required to lay off the distance of 784 feet with a tape (a) 100.04 feet long; (b) 99.9 feet long.

Exercise C-5.

Experiments with a Steel Tape.

References: Page 40, § 62 (c), p. 41, § 64.

Equipment: Steel tape, scale, spring balance, turn-buckles, thermometer, magnifying glass, 2 plumb bobs.

Directions: 1. Perform the experiment of § 62 (c), p. 40. 2. Test the length of a tape first under a 12 pound pull, then under a 20 pound pull. Repeat several times. 3. With the ends of the tape supported a short distance above the floor or ground, the rest of the tape being unsupported, find the tension required to make the tape of standard length. Use plumb bobs to mark the ends of the tape and turn-buckles to hold the tape steady at the standard pull.

Questions: 1. A line measured in summer with a 100 foot tape, 70° F. temperature, 12 pound pull is found to be 438.945 feet long; measured again in winter at a temperature of 10° F., with the same tape and same pull, what should be its length (tape supported in both cases on level supports)? p. 40, § 62. 2. A tape is 100 feet long, $\frac{1}{4}$ inch wide, $\frac{1}{200}$ inch thick and weighs

.0005 pounds per inch; standard at 62° F., 12 pound pull. A line measured when the temperature is 90° F. and the pull 20 pounds with the tape supported at the two ends only is found to be 93.41 feet long. Required the corrected length of the line. 3. Compare the pull required to balance the sag as obtained in the third experiment above with that obtained theoretically from the formula at the bottom of page 41, using the tape described in the preceding question.

Exercise C-6.

Measuring a Base Line.

References: Page 57, § 82.

Equipment: Steel tape, scale, spring balance, thermometer, magnifying glass (if desired a turn-buckle device for stretching the tape).

Directions: 1. On a level stretch of ground set stakes with their tops on a level, making a line several hundred feet long. Measure the length of this base line a number of times as directed on page 57. 2. Find the probable error as explained on page 58 (read also pp. 15–19).

Suggestions: As it will require considerable time to set stakes, this may be done once for all and the same stakes used by different squads.

Questions: 1. What should be the maximum discrepancy between two measurements of a line 1000 feet long, that the work may be classed as excellent? pp. 48, 49. 2. Is a large error more likely to occur from a variation in temperature or a variation in pull? p. 43. 3. Give the relative importance of different sources of error. p. 43. 4. State some of the requirements corresponding to a ratio of precision of 1/50000. p. 51. 5. When it is impracticable to set stakes with their tops on a level, how would you proceed? p. 57. 6. How can tripods be employed in chaining a base line through thick underbrush? p. 58. 7. Sketch a device for supporting and stretching a tape. 8. Give ideal conditions for base line measurement. 9. What is the object in having the end of the tape fall on a different stake each time a line is chained? 10. Describe other apparatus for measuring base lines. p. 194. 11. Give some practical suggestions for setting supporting stakes, protecting end hubs, etc. p. 57.

Exercise C-7.

A Chain Survey of an Irregular Polygon.

Reference: Page 56, § 80.

Equipment: Chain or tape, chain pins, range poles, plumb bob.

Directions: 1. Set 5 stakes at random, forming an irregular polygon each side of which is at least 150 feet long. 2. Survey this polygon with a tape as explained on page 56. 3. Compute the area of the polygon by finding the area of each of the triangles into which it is subdivided from formula 12 on page 408.

Suggestions: A survey of some plot of land having straight boundary lines may be substituted if desired. For a survey of a plot with irregular boundary lines see page 15 of this book.

Field Notes: 1. A sketch showing all measurements. 2. The computations for areas neatly arranged.

Questions: 1. How can the angles of the polygon be found from the original measurements? 2. Give the general method for making any chain survey. p. 56. 3. If in the survey shown in Fig. 80, p. 56, it were impossible to see all four corners from any one station, how would you proceed?

Exercise C-8.

To Chain from a Given Point over the Brow of a Hill to Another Point.

Reference: Page 55, § 79.

Equipment: Tape, chain pins, sight poles, plumb bobs.

Directions: Set two poles, one over the brow of a hill from the other, and chain the distance between them, as explained on page 55.

Questions: 1. Give two methods of "ranging in" when a valley intervenes between the two points. p. 56, § 79 (c). 2. Give the method of chaining over a high wall. p. 54. 3. Give a method of chaining a line between two points when woods intervene. p.54.

Exercise C-9.

Laying Out a Right Angle with a Tape by the 3-4-5 Method.

Reference: Page 60.

Equipment: Tape and chain pins.

Directions: 1. Set two pins in the ground 80 feet apart and with this line as one side, stake out an 80 foot square. 2. Check by measuring the two diagonals of the square.

Field Notes: Make a sketch showing each distance measured or laid off and the discrepancy between the two diagonals.

Questions: 1. Explain the difference between the methods of laying out a right angle with a cloth tape and with a steel tape (a 100 foot tape being used in each case). 2. How would you lay off a right angle with a 50 foot tape? 3. If one diagonal of a square as staked out is longer than the other how would you proceed to correct the mistake? 4. If the two diagonals are exactly equal, does this necessarily prove that the square has been staked out correctly? 5. How closely should the lengths of the two diagonals of an 80 foot square agree to indicate good work? 6. How would you proceed to stake out the house on page 210, using only the tape?

Exercise C-10.

To Erect a Perpendicular with a Tape at Any Point in a Line.

Reference: Pages 61, 62 and 63.

Equipment: Tape and chain pins.

Directions: 1. Set two pins at random and at one of them erect a perpendicular to the line between them by the method of § 85 (b), p. 61. 2. Check by the 3-4-5 method.

Field Notes: Make a sketch showing all measurements.

Questions: 1. What is the difference between the methods used for geometrical constructions in drafting and those used for the same constructions in chaining? Illustrate by sketches. 2. What method in chaining corresponds to erecting a perpendicular by intersecting arcs and how may the perpendicular erected by this method be checked by the use of the same method? p. 61. 3. Illustrate, by sketches, methods of dropping a perpendicular to a given line from any given point. p. 62.

Exercise C-11.

To Run One Line Parallel to Another Line.

Reference: Page 62 and page 63.

Equipment: Tape and chain pins.

Directions: Assume three points at random and through one of them establish a line parallel to the line between the other two, using two different methods.

Field Notes: Make a sketch showing all measurements.

Question: Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the three methods given on page 63.

Exercise C-12.

To Measure between Two Points when a Corner of a Building Intervenes.

Reference: Page 64, § 87 (a).

Directions: 1. Assume two points at least 40 to 60 feet apart and imagine a corner of a building to intervene. Find the distance between the two points by one of the methods explained on page 64 and check the result by the other method. 2. Check also by a direct measurement.

Suggestion: Having completed the exercise with an imaginary obstacle, it is well to repeat the work with the corner of a real building intervening between the two given points.

Field Notes: Make a sketch showing all measurements made during the exercise, and the final results.

Exercise C-13.

To Measure to an Inaccessible Point.

Reference: Page 64, § 87 (b).

Equipment: Chain and chain pins.

Directions: 1. Set two stakes or pins about 200 feet apart. 2. Find the distance between the two points by two different methods. 3. Check results by direct measurement.

Questions: 1. Could the methods used in transit work (p. 222, § 277 (c)) be used in chaining? 2. Explain at least two other methods that might be used with a tape. § 87 (c). 3. Describe a rough method of measuring the height of an inaccessible point. § 87 (d). 4. Describe at least two methods of prolonging a straight line through an obstacle using only the tape. p. 66. (If time permits this may be done in the field as an additional exercise.) 5. Show by a sketch one method of measuring between two inaccessible points. § 87 (e).

Field Notes: 1. A sketch showing all measurements. 2. Arithmetical work neatly arranged.

Exercise C-14.

To Measure the Angles of a Triangle with a Tape.

References: Page 63, § 86, and pages 458–460.

Equipment: Tape and chain pins.

Directions: Set three stakes or chain pins at random to form a triangle with no side less than 100 feet long. 2. Measure each interior angle of the triangle with the tape using the tangent method. 3. Repeat the problem using the chord method.

Suggestions: 1. Take a reasonably long distance for the base in the tangent method and the radii in the chord method. 2. Pay particular attention to lining in — the errors are chiefly here.

Field Notes: 1. A sketch of the triangle showing all measurements for the first method; a similar sketch for the second method. 2. All arithmetical work neatly arranged. 3. A comparison of results of the first and second methods. 4. Actual error in the sum of the angles.

Questions: 1. Illustrate how to measure angles of various sizes from 0° to 360° by the tangent method; by the chord method. 2. What is the most convenient base or radius? 3. Upon what does the accuracy of the tangent method depend? 4. When is it advantageous to use the chord method instead of the tangent method? 5. Explain the sine and cosine method. p. 63.

Exercise C-15.

A Chain Survey of a Plot of Ground with Irregular Boundary Lines and Containing Buildings.

References: Page 56, § 80, also pp. 138 to 140.

Equipment: Steel tape, chain pins, stakes, hatchet and range poles.

Directions: Make a survey of a small plot of ground in which some of the boundary lines are curved or irregular. There should also be some buildings to be located. Establish a network of triangles for reference lines as explained on page 56, § 80 (c), and locate the different details as explained on pages 138–140.

Suggestions: If desired this exercise may be conducted as a recitation, the different methods being discussed by the class as a whole, or by each squad, and each method illustrated by sketches on the blackboard or in the note-book.

Field Notes: 1. A complete sketch showing all measurements made in the field. 2. Computations for area neatly arranged.

Questions: 1. Give the methods of locating a point from two given points by linear measurement only. p. 4. 2. Explain method of locating a building by means of offsets. p. 138, § 198 (a). 3. Explain the method of locating a regular curve by offsets. § 198 (b). 4. Explain the method of locating an irregular outline like the bank of a stream, by linear measurements only. 5. What three points must be kept in mind in using the offset method? § 198 (d). 6. Explain the "plus system" often used in the offset method. *Note,* p. 139. 7. Explain how to locate a building by three measurements, one of which is a tie line. Figure 199 (a). 8. Is it necessary that the tie line should have one end at some point on the building? p. 140. 9. Explain how to locate a building by two pairs of intersecting measurements. Figure 199 (b). 10. Explain the use of tie lines in getting the directions of fences. § 199 (c). 11. How may the area of the plot surveyed be computed? pp. 410–413. (If time permits, compute the area of the plot surveyed.)

Exercise C-16.

Discussion of the Errors in Linear Measurements.

References: Chapter V, pages 39 to 53.

Questions: 1. What are the four general sources of error in chaining? p. 39. 2. How is an error expressed by a ratio? 3. If a line is measured with a tape that is too short, will the result be too short or too long, and what is the corresponding algebraic sign? 4. Why is the error in the length of a chain likely to be relatively greater than that in a tape? 5. Show by an illustration how to apply a correction for an error in the length of a tape when chaining between two points; when laying off a given distance. p. 40. 6. How can an error due to the tape not being horizontal be eliminated? 7. When is the error due to temperature plus, and when minus? 8. What is the approximate change in the length of a 100-foot steel tape for a change in temperature of 90° F.? 9. When should temperature be taken into account and when not? 10. What precautions are often taken in base line measurement to eliminate the error due to temperature? 11. What approximate rate of change may be remembered for a 100-foot tape? 12. If the length of a city block is measured in summer and then again in winter with the same tape, what discrepancy due to change in temperature may be expected? 13. Describe an experiment which may be tried to show the effect of a small change in temperature upon the length of a steel tape. 14. What is meant by the error in alignment, and is this source of error relatively important? p. 41. 15. In ordinary chaining, is it necessary for the transitman to line the chainman in with the instrument? 16. Is an error due to sag plus or minus? 17. What three ways are there of eliminating the error due to sag? 18. How may the error due to uneven pull be eliminated? p. 42. 19. How may the errors in marking tape lengths be reduced? 20. In what kind of work is this source of error the greatest? 21. Name four common mistakes made in reading tapes. 22. In extremely accurate work, what precautions may be taken in reading the tape? 23. Summarize the eleven sources of errors in chaining. p. 43. 24. From what two sources are errors compensating? 25. What errors are always plus? 26. Discuss the relative importance of the sources of errors, pointing out from which sources important errors are most likely to occur, and what sources may be neglected in ordinary work. 27. In judging the relative importance of errors, what points should be kept in mind? p. 44. 28. What largely determines limits of error in a given survey? 29. Should all measurements in the same survey be made with equal care? 30. In general, what distances should be measured carefully and what less carefully? p. 45. 31. What are some of the conditions that affect the accuracy of chaining? 32. If the accidental errors amount to 0.02 foot for 100 feet in using a 100-foot tape, what would be the probable error in measuring a line 900 feet long? 33. Give the general rule for finding the probable error. 34. Why is not the discrepancy between two measurements of the same line affected by constant errors? 35. If the discrepancy between two measurements of the length of a tape is 0.01, what is it likely to be between two measurements of a line sixteen tape lengths long? 36. What can you say regarding the value of the formula at the top of page 46? 37. Discuss the remark at the top of page 46, and explain why the last sentence in that remark is true. 38. Explain the first method of determining a coefficient of precision for chaining. 39. Explain a method which may be used for ordinary chaining. 40. A line is chained twice under favorable conditions, measurements being made with an ordinary chain, plumb-bob, chain-pins and average speed. The two results were, respectively, 618.1, 618.3. Would the work be classed excellent, good, or fairly good? (See Table 1, p. 48.) 41. If a steel tape had been used in place of a chain, other conditions being the same, what would be the allowable discrepancy in good work between the two measurements in the preceding question? 42. Apply Table 2, page 49, to questions 40 and 41. 43. Explain how the table on page 51 may be used to indicate the precautions which are necessary to attain certain degrees of precision. p. 52. 44. Discuss the matter of combining errors from different sources. p. 52.

GROUP T.

EXERCISES IN THE USE OF THE TRANSIT.

The exercises in this group offer the student an opportunity to form correct habits in manipulating the transit and in reading angles. As habits formed early in the course are likely to cling to one long after graduation, and as the transit is perhaps the most important instrument used in surveying, no suggestion, however trivial it may seem, should be ignored if it is likely to help one to become skilful and accurate in the use of the transit.

Exercise T-1.

Setting up a Transit.

References: Pages 84–89, §§ 109–115.

Equipment: A transit for each student, or as many transits as are available.

Directions: 1. Set up the transit on comparatively level ground, paying special attention to the suggestions on page 87. 2. Repeat the work, selecting a place on a side hill.

Suggestions: **At the beginning of the exercise, it is well for each instructor to show his squad how to set up a transit, emphasizing at the same time the importance of the suggestions on page 87, § 114. The members of the squad may then be drilled individually under close supervision of the instructor, several transits being used simultaneously, if possible.**

If this exercise is given before the exercises in the use of the level, it is well for the instructor to explain briefly the principal parts of the telescope (see photograph, page 551), and, if thought best, to add to the questions given below those on pages 96 and 97 of this book.

Questions: 1. Give some of the precautions to be observed (a) in the use of clamps and screws; (b) in the treatment of lenses; (c) in standing a transit up on a floor. p. 84. 2. Give precautions taken in carrying a transit. p. 85. 3. Give other precautions. pp. 607–609. 4. Tie a sliding knot as described on p. 85. (If the knot slides too freely, take an extra turn of the string about the hook.) 5. How are the cross-hairs brought in focus? p. 85. 6. Give the rule for focusing the object glass on distant objects. p. 86. (If desired, the theory of lenses (pp. 545–549) and the construction of the telescope (pp. 549–558) *may be* studied in connection with Questions 5 and 6.) 7. Give *suggestions* for sighting the telescope. p. 85, § 111. 8. Give some practical suggestions for manipulating the tripod. p. 86, §§ 113, 114. 9. Give suggestions for leveling up. p. 88. 10. Explain how the telescope level is sometimes used for leveling up. p. 89. 11. If the plumb-bob is as much as ¼ to ½ of an inch off the tack, how much will this affect an angle if sights are 450 feet long? p. 89 and p. 105, § 147. 12. Give some points to remember in leveling up. p. 89, § 115.

Exercise T-2.

Prolonging a Straight Line.

Reference: Pages 90–93, §§ 116–122.

Equipment: Transit, hatchet, and stakes.

Directions: 1. Set two stakes at random, at least 200 feet apart, in such a place that the line between them can be prolonged another 200 feet. 2. Set up over the end of the line to be prolonged, and set a third stake in line about 200 feet away, using the method of double reverse. p. 92. 3. Set up over the other end of the original line and see if all three stakes are in line.

Suggestion: Drive the stakes only part way into the ground so that they may be pulled up easily. Mark the exact points with a small lead-pencil cross.

The *upper* clamp should be set once for all at the beginning of the exercise, and left undisturbed during the remainder of the exercise. The student should then work wholly with the *lower* clamp and corresponding slow motion screw, and thus become accustomed to using them for *backsighting.* Not until *Exercise T–4* should he concern himself with the use of the *upper* clamp and the corresponding slow motion screw.

It may be well, at the close of the exercise, for the instructor to explain briefly by means of the figures on pages 588 and 590 what errors of adjustment may be eliminated by reversing in azimuth and altitude.

Field Notes: A short statement of the work and of the discrepancy, if any, found in the final check of the third step above.

Questions: Define backsight, foresight, permanent backsight, and permanent foresight. p. 90. 2. Explain the use of the upper and lower clamps and the corresponding tangent screws. p. 91, § 119, pp. 563–566. 3. Give signals for lining in. p. 146. 4. Explain the method of reversing in azimuth and altitude; what are other synonymous terms? p. 92. 5. In setting up to prolong a straight line, what precaution may be taken? p. 89 (14); also note, p. 92. 6. What four methods are there for prolonging a straight line?

Exercise T-3.

Balancing in a Transit.

References: Page 93 and page 201.

Equipment: Transit, hatchet, stakes, and sight poles.

Directions: Set two stakes several hundred feet apart, and balance in the transit about half way between them as explained on page 201. 2. When the transit is apparently on line, test by the method of double reverse.

Exercise T-4.

Reading the Limb of a Transit.

References: Pages 67–75.

Equipment: A transit for each student, or as many transits as are available.

Directions: 1. Clamp the plates of a transit at random, read the number of degrees (clockwise), estimate the number of minutes, and record the total reading. *Pay no attention to the vernier reading.* 2. Record the correct reading as given by the instructor (who will read the vernier). 3. If the transit has two verniers 180 degrees apart, repeat for the reading across the circle. 4. Repeat the whole exercise until from 6 to 10 different readings have been made and recorded by each student.

Suggestions: If a number of transits are available for each squad, they may be set up within a few feet of each other, and the plates of each transit set at random by the instructor. Each student may then read in turn the limb of each transit. *No vernier readings should be permitted,* as the object of the exercise is to make each student thoroughly familiar with the method of reading the limb before he undertakes to read the vernier. After the student has become accustomed to reading the angles clockwise, he may be drilled in reading the angles counter-clockwise.

At the beginning of the exercise it is well for the instructor to explain briefly how the upper and lower plates may be turned independently or together, and to illustrate the use of the upper and the lower clamps and the corresponding slow motion screws. The photograph on page 565 should be useful in this connection.

If transits with special forms of numbering are available, as, for example, one like that described in Article 95 (d), page 73, a special drill should be given in reading such instruments.

FORM OF NOTES.

Number of Reading.	Value.	Instructor's Reading.
1	37° 15′	37° 18′
2	108° 40′	108° 38′

Questions: 1. Which plate, the limb or that carrying the vernier, must necessarily turn when the telescope is moved sidewise? pp. 67, 563. 2. Give the three common systems of numbering the limb gradations. p. 67. 3. Give four common methods of subdividing the degree on the limb. p. 68. 4. Give the three steps in reading an angle. p. 68. 5. In which step are important mistakes liable to occur? Remark, p. 68. 6. Explain what is meant by reading an angle clockwise and counter-clockwise right and left (p. 68), and why are the first two terms preferable to the last two terms? Remark, p. 69. 7. Give general method of reading a limb. § 91 (b), p. 68. 8. Give common mistakes in reading a limb. p. 69. 9. If angles are always measured clockwise, what system of numbering is best for the transit (p. 71) and how many rows of numbers would be needed? p. 67. 10. In measuring angles clockwise, which row of numbers on page 70 is ignored? 11. Why is the portion of the limb near the 180-degree mark a place where mistakes are liable to occur? p. 71, § 94 (b). 12. Why is it important to check readings by estimating angles with the eye? p. 71, § 94 (b). 13. What mistake is illustrated by most of the incorrect readings on page 70? p. 71, § 94 (c). 14. What mistake is illustrated by the reading of 171° 30′ in place of 191° 30′? p. 70, § 94 (c). 15. If a transit has only one row of numbers (clockwise), and it is desired to read an angle counter-clockwise, how would you proceed? § 94 (d), p. 71. 16. If a transit has only one row of numbers, and that is the half-circle system, how would you read an angle clockwise which is greater than 180°? p. 73, § 95 (c) and (d). 17. When gradations are numbered by a combination of the full-circle and quadrant systems, what is a common mistake? p. 75, § 96 (b), and at what two points on the limb are mistakes most likely to occur? (Bottom of p. 75.)

Note: As a result of this exercise two things should be impressed upon the mind of the student, first the importance of reading the *limb* correctly before attempting to read the vernier, and, second, the closeness with which an angle may be read *without* the use of a vernier.

Exercise T–5.

Reading Angles; Limb and Vernier.

References: Pages 76–83.

Equipment: A transit for each student, or as many transits as are available; preferably transits should read to minutes.

Directions: 1. Clamp the plates of a transit at random, and read both the limb and vernier clockwise, recording the total reading. 2. Record the correct reading as given by the instructor. 3. Repeat for the vernier across the circle. 4. Repeat the whole exercise until from six to ten readings have been made and recorded by each student.

Suggestions: **Several transits may be used by each squad as in the preceding exercise. It is well, however, to confine the work to transits reading to minutes until the method is thoroughly understood, then transits reading 30, 20, or 10 seconds may be used. Finally, students should be drilled in reading angles counter-clockwise.**

Form of Notes.

Same as that for the preceding exercise.

Questions: 1. What is the principle of the vernier? pp. 538, 539. 2. What is the difference between direct and retrograde verniers? p. 540. 3. Explain how to determine the smallest reading or least count of a vernier. p. 540; also p. 76, § 97 (c). 4. In the vernier reading to minutes, how large an arc is covered by the space that is called a minute? p. 76, § 97. 5. Give the general method of reading a vernier. § 98. 6. Which side of a double vernier should be read? § 99. 7. Why should the vernier reading be estimated from the limb before the vernier is read? § 99 (2). 8. How many marks should be examined closely in reading the vernier? § 99 (3). 9. When may an angle be read to 30 seconds on a vernier reading to minutes, and what is the greatest error involved in reading such a vernier? § 99 (3). 10. What precaution should be used in setting a vernier? § 99 (4). 11. When there are two verniers 180° apart, which is ordinarily used? § [illegible] 12. What are some of the co[illegible] reading verniers? *p. 77.* 13. Describe [illegible] each of *which reads to* [illegible] form of vernier reading to 30 seconds. p. 80. 15. Describe a common form of vernier reading to 20 seconds. p. 81. 16. Describe a common form of vernier reading to 10 seconds. p. 82. 17. Describe some special forms of verniers. p. 83.

Note: Different forms of verniers may be assigned to students to be drawn on paper outside of the regular exercise.

Exercise T-6.

Measuring Horizontal Angles with a Transit.

References: Pages 93–98, §§ 125–133.

Equipment: Transit, stakes, hatchet, and sight poles.

Directions: 1. Set four stakes $A, B, D,$ and $E,$ at random to form an irregular polygon, no side of which is less than 150 feet in length. 2. Set a stake C near the center of this polygon. 3. Set up the transit over C, and measure in succession the horizontal angles $ACB, BCD, DCE,$ and $ECA,$ all measured clockwise. Make a sketch showing the values of the angles. 4. Check by comparing the sum of the four angles with 360°.

Questions: 1. Give the general method of measuring horizontal angles. p. 93. 2. Which clamp and tangent screw is used for each operation? Bottom of p. 93, top of p. 94. 3. Explain the difference between taking the angles to the right and to the left. p. 94. 4. Explain how a number of angles may be taken from the same backsight. p. 94. 5. Is the vernier always set at 0 before measuring an angle? p. 94. 6. If there are two verniers, which is used? p. 95. 7. Why form the habit of estimating the angles by eye? p. 95. 8. Precautions to take after backsighting. p. 95. 9. Precautions to take in measuring a large number of angles from the same backsight. p. 95, § 129 (6), (7), (8). 10. In taking angles clockwise, is it necessary to turn the telescope clockwise? 11. Name some of the sources of error in measuring the horizontal angles. p. 96. 12. Give some suggestions for using the vernier in reading the angles. p. 96. 13. Name some common mistakes in reading angles. p. 97. 14. Relative importance of errors. p. 104. 15. Relative importance of error in setting up the transit. p. 104. 16. If a pole is $\frac{3}{4}$ inch in diameter and is held 100 feet from the transit, what would be the angular error caused by bringing the vertical cross-hair to coincide with the edge of the pole instead of with its center? Bottom p. 105. 17. Is the difference between the sum of the four angles and 360° the *true* error of that sum or simply a *discrepancy?* p. 14, § 24 (b). 18. How would you distribute this error? p. 14, § 24 (c). 19. If two angles *ACB* and *BCD* were measured separately, and then checked by measuring *ACD,* would the difference between the sum of the first two angles and the measured value of *ACD* be a true error, or simply a discrepancy, and how would it be distributed? § 24 (d). 20. What method corresponding to the work done in this exercise is sometimes used in work of high precision? p. 100, § 139.

Exercise T–7.

Practice in Doubling Horizontal Angles.

Reference: Page 99, § 138.

Equipment: Same as for the preceding exercise.

Directions: Repeat the preceding exercise, but double each angle as explained in § 138.

Questions: 1. Explain the method of measuring angles by repetition. p. 99. 2. What is the chief precaution necessary in manipulating clamps and tangent screws when repeating an angle? p. 100. 3. When is it necessary to add multiples of 360°? Illustrate how this is done. 4. Explain how to lay off an angle accurately. p. 101, § 142; also p. 218.

Exercise T–8.

Measuring Vertical Angles with a Transit.

Reference: Page 98, § 135.

Equipment: Transit, stakes, and hatchet.

Directions: 1. Drive two stakes *A* and *B* about 200 feet apart, *B* being considerably lower than *A*. Set up over *A* and measure the vertical angle which the line of sight from the transit to *B* makes with the horizontal. 2. Assume some well-defined point *at least 50* feet above the ground and 200 feet from the transit; *call this* point *C*, and measure the angle which the line of sight from the transit to C makes with the horizontal. 3. Measure the vertical angle between the lines of sight to B and to C. Make a sketch showing the values of all angles. 4. Check by comparing the last angle measured with the sum of the other two angles.

Questions: 1. How should the vertical arc be adjusted, assuming that the transit is in adjustment otherwise? p. 98, § 135. 2. How would you proceed if neither the vertical arc nor the corresponding vernier were adjustable? 3. What is the "index error," and how are the algebraic signs applied to it? p. 98. 4. In measuring the vertical angles as directed above, where is the vertex of the angle? 5. If it were required to measure a vertical angle, one side of which was determined by two points on the ground, how would you proceed, assuming that all points are accessible? 6. Is it possible to double a vertical angle with a transit as ordinarily made? 7. How can a transit be made so that it will be possible to double vertical angles?

Exercise T-9.

To Find the Intersection of Two Lines of Sight.

Reference: Page 202.

Equipment: Transit, stakes, hatchet, wire brads, short pieces of string.

Directions: 1. Set four stakes at random to form a polygon, no side of which is less than 150 feet in length. 2. Find the intersection of the diagonals of this quadrilateral as explained in § 257.

Questions: 1. Explain the method of referencing a point. § 259. 2. Give other methods of referencing a point. p. 54. 3. How would you reference a point for setting a merestone? p. 203, § 259. *Illustration.* 4. Give two methods of referencing a line. § 260. 5. Explain the importance of referencing at least one line in a survey. § 260. *Remark.*

Exercise T-10.

To Establish a Line of Sight Parallel to a Fence or to a Building.

Reference: Page 201, § 256.

Equipment: Transit, tape, stakes, hatchet, sight pole.

Directions: 1. Assume a station about three feet from a fence or a building. 2. Set the transit over the station and establish a line of sight parallel to the fence or to the building as directed on page 201.

Field Notes: Make a sketch showing the fence or building, the transit line and the distance used. Describe the method referring to the sketch in order to make it plain.

Questions: 1. What method would you use when the parallel lines are a considerable distance apart? p. 224, § 278 (b).

Exercise T-11.

To Measure the Angle Formed by Two Intersecting Lines without Setting Up over Either Line.

Reference: Page 202, § 258.

Equipment: Transit, tape, hatchet, stakes, sight pole, pieces of string.

Directions: Measure the angle at any place where two definite fence lines meet, choosing preferably a corner where the transit cannot be set up inside of the fence line, using the method of § 258.

Suggestion: If it is inconvenient to use actual fence lines, drive three stakes to form a triangle no side of which is less than 200 feet in length, and measure the interior angle at one of the vertices without setting up over any vertex or over any point within the triangle. Three parties may work on the same triangle, one at each vertex, and the sum of the three results may then be compared with 180° as a check.

Questions: 1. What method can be used when the transit can be set up over a point inside of the corner? 2. How are division fences usually set? 3. How are division walls usually set? 4. How are fences along a street usually set? 5. How are *street lines* usually marked?

Exercise T-12.

Discussion of the Errors in Angular Measurement.

Reference: Chapter X, p. 104.

Questions: 1. What in general are six sources of error in measuring angles? p. 104. 2. What can you say regarding the relative importance of errors from these different sources? 3. If the plumb-bob is slightly off the tack is the resulting error likely to be large? p. 105. 4. When is the error due to the plates being out of level likely to be large? 5. Why is the error due to either source greater for short sights than for long sights in *measuring* angles? Why is the reverse true in *laying off* angles? 6. If the bob is ½ inch off the station, what, approximately, are the resulting errors for sights of 100 and 1000 feet respectively? 7. Give some idea of the errors involved when one edge of the limb is lower than the other. 8. In measuring an angle what values should be kept in mind when judging the importance of errors of sighting? (Note (*b*), p. 106.) 9. What values in laying off angles? 10. Explain by means of these values the importance of holding the sight pole plumb. 11. Suppose that in measuring an angle to the nearest minute the length of sight is 800 feet and only the top of the pole is visible, how much could it be out of plumb without materially affecting the result? 12. What are some of the natural sources of error? 13. Explain how the sun shining on one side of the instrument and not on the other might affect a line of sight. 14. Give some precautions which may be taken to avoid mistakes; to eliminate constant errors; to eliminate accidental errors. 15. In what two ways may the precision of angular measurement be judged? p. 107. 16. Explain each of these two methods. 17. Explain the fundamental difference between checking angles by the *true* error of their sum and by the *discrepancy* between their sum and a *measured* angle. 18. If the sum of the interior angles of a polygon agrees with the check of § 175, p. 119, does this mean that the measured value of each angle is exactly right? 19. If the interior angles of a triangle are measured with a coarsely graduated instrument why is their sum more likely to be exactly 180° than if a finely graduated instrument were used? 20. What are some of the conditions which effect the precision of angular measurement? p. 108. 21. Suppose that the ratio of precision for chaining has been fixed at $\frac{1}{10000}$, what is the permissible error for an angle? (See table at bottom of p. 108.) 22. If an error of 30″ is made in laying off an angle what is the error in feet at a distance of 1500 feet from the transit? 23. What can you say regarding the permissible angular error in ordinary transit surveying? p. 109. 24. For limits $\frac{1}{30000}$ or higher what are the permissible angular errors, and how may this degree of precision be attained? 25. What is meant by consistent accuracy as applied to the relation between linear and angular measurement? 26. When is it not desirable to maintain this consistent accuracy? 27. Suppose that contour points in a survey should be located to the nearest foot and the longest sight does not exceed 600 feet, how accurately must angles be read, and will it be necessary to use the vernier? 28. How accurately must an angle be measured to locate a point 800 feet from the transit within $\frac{1}{2}$ inch? 29. A corner of a building is 60 feet from a transit and an angle and a distance are measured to it solely for purposes of plotting to a scale of 1 inch = 50 feet, how accurately should each be measured? (Use 500 feet in the table at the bottom of page 108, changing the position of the decimal point.) 30. If the permissible error in a single angle is 20″, what is the permissible error in the sum of the interior angles of a 25-sided polygon? p. 110. 31. What would be the permissible error in the same polygon if the sides averaged 400 feet in length, and the largest discrepancy allowed between two measurements of the same line were 0.1 foot? 32. Is it the general tendency in transit surveying to overestimate the accuracy required in angular measurement and underestimate that required for linear measurements, or *vice versa?*

GROUP TR.

EXERCISES IN RUNNING TRANSIT LINES.

General Directions for Exercises Tr-1 to Tr-11.

The following eleven exercises are intended to fix in mind the methods explained in Chapter XII, p. 116. These exercises are of the greatest importance, since they are preparatory to actual surveys to be taken up later in the course.

In all problems drive three or more stakes at random to form a triangle or polygon, no side of which is less than 150 feet. *Mark each stake so that different parties will not use each other's stations by mistake.* It is not necessary to drive stakes flush with the ground; indeed, it is better to drive them only partway in. In the top of each stake drive a wire brad, leaving enough of the nail projecting above the stake to serve as a sight, thus avoiding the necessity wherever possible of holding a pencil or a pole on the stake.

In the direct angle methods measure all angles to the right, unless otherwise stated. Unless it is desirable to gain additional practice in chaining, measurements of the lengths of the sides of triangles or polygons may be omitted. In most of the exercises two men can work to advantage in a party. Each should check the other's work, keep complete notes, and divide the work of running the transit. Thus, for example, if the party consists of two men, one can run the transit at one station, the other at the next station, and so on, alternating. In the azimuth method, however, it is desirable for one man to run the transit entirely around the triangle or polygon, and then the exercise should be repeated, the other man running the transit. It is well to choose a comparatively level piece of ground for all of these exercises, where no difficulty will be encountered in sighting.

Equipment for Exercises Tr-1 *to Tr*-11: A transit reading preferably to minutes, and for all exercises except deflection angle exercises, graduated according to the full circle system. Also hatchet, stakes, wire brads, crayon, and in some cases sight poles. If the lengths of sides are to be measured, a tape and plumb-bob should be added to the equipment.

Exercise Tr-1.

Survey of a Triangle or Polygon by the Direct Angle Method.

References: Pages 116–120, §§ 162–178.

Equipment: See page 29 of this book.

Directions: 1. See general directions, page 29 of this book. 2. Survey the triangle or polygon without doubling angles, measuring the interior angles. Keep notes according to Form 1, p. 170. Follow as far as possible the method of procedure on p. 154, § 220 (a).

Questions: 1. Define transit station, transit line, and transit angle. p. 116. 2. What are transit lines used for? p. 116, § 165. 3. Give the general method of running transit lines. p. 116, § 166. 4. Define transit-line angle and explain how to avoid ambiguity in the notes. p. 117, § 167. 5. Define deflection angle, a system of transit lines, traverse, triangulation. 6. What is the difference between angles to the right and angles to the left? p. 118. 7. If angles are measured to the right, in what direction must one go around a polygon in order to measure interior angles? p. 118, § 173. 8. Give the rule for a closing check on transit-line angles. 9. If the ratio of precision in chaining for a given survey is $\frac{1}{5000}$, how accurately should transit-line angles be measured to obtain a corresponding degree of accuracy in angular measurement? p. 108, § 152. 10. If the permissible error in the measurement of a single angle is 30 seconds, what is the permissible error in the sum of the interior angles of a polygon of nine sides? p. 110. Is this error the same thing as "error of closure"? p. 119.

Questions on Methods of Keeping Field Notes in Transit Surveying: 1. Describe the different systems of keeping field notes. p. 164, §§ 229 and 231. 2. How may notes pertaining to transit lines be distinguished from other notes, and what is the object in doing this? p. 165, § 230. 3. Explain the tabulated form of notes. § 232. 4. Explain the sketch method. § 233. 5. Explain the combination method. § 234. 6. Compare the three methods. 7. When should notes read from the bottom up? § 235. 8. What should the field notes include? § 236. 9. Give suggestions for avoiding crowded notes. § 237. 10. Give general suggestions for keeping field notes. §§ 239 and 240. 11. Give the advantages and disadvantages of Form 1, p. 170.

Exercise Tr-2.

Measuring the Exterior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon.

References, Equipment, and Directions, same as for the preceding exercise, except that exterior angles are measured instead of interior, by going around the polygon in the opposite direction.

Exercise Tr-3.

Doubling the Interior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon.

Reference: Page 99, § 138.

Equipment: See page 29 of this book.

Directions: 1. See general directions, page 29 of this book. 2. Measure the interior angle of the triangle or polygon, doubling each angle according to the method on p. 99, § 138. Keep notes according to Form 4, p. 173, omitting the last two columns. Follow as far as possible the method of procedure on p. 154, § 220 (b).

Questions: 1. Explain the method of measuring angles by repetition. p. 99. 2. Explain the use of clamps in repeating the angles. *Caution,* p. 100. 3. When is it necessary to add multiples of 360°? § 138 (d). 4. What is the advantage of doubling angles? 5. What is the greatest number of repetitions usually used for a single angle? § 138 (c).

Exercise Tr-4.

Doubling the Exterior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon.

References, Equipment, and Directions, same as for the preceding exercise, except that the exterior angles are measured instead of the interior.

Exercise Tr-5.

Measuring the Interior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon, and Checking by Calculated Bearings.

References: Page 126, § 189; p. 101, § 143; pp. 111–113, §§ 153–159; also pp. 541–543, 566; Chapter XXX, p. 378.

Equipment: See page 29 of this book.

Directions: 1. See general directions, page 29 of this book. 2. Set up at any station, backsight on a preceding station, lower the needle on its pivot, and read the bearing of the line to the backsight. p. 101. 3. Measure the interior angle clockwise and check this angle by the calculated bearing as in Chapter XXX, p. 378. 4. Set up at the next station, measure the interior angle, and from the *calculated* bearing of the preceding line calculate the bearing of the next line. Check this calculated bearing by reading the needle. 5. Continue in the same way until the interior angle at each station has been measured. The discrepancy between the bearing of the first line as calculated at the *last* station and the magnetic bearing of this same line as read at the *first* station should equal the error in the sum of the interior angles as revealed by the check on p. 119.

Field Notes: Keep notes according to Form 4, p. 173, omitting of course the double value of the angle. Arrange computations of calculated bearings in a form similar to that on p. 382.

Suggestion: Before beginning this exercise in the field, the class should be drilled in calculating bearings; some of the examples on p. 116 of this book may be given for practice.

Questions: 1. Define magnetic declination, agonic line, local attraction. p. 111, § 153. 2. Define the bearing of a line and illustrate by a sketch. p. 111. 3. Difference between true bearing and magnetic bearing? 4. Why will the true bearing of a line change if the line is prolonged far enough with a transit? 5. Explain what is meant by forward bearing and back bearing and illustrate by a sketch. p. 112. 6. If the bearing of line *AB* is N. 47° W., what is the bearing of *BA*? *Note,* p. 113. 7. Which bearings are usually kept in a survey forward or back? p. 113. 8. Give some of the facts to remember concerning bearings. p. 113. 9. Which end of the compass needle is read? p. 101,

§ 143. 10. When is the other end read? p. 102. 11. Why are positions of the letters E. and W. interchanged in the compass box? p. 102. 12. Give the directions to be observed in reading bearings. p. 103. 13. Explain why the calculated bearings are entirely independent of magnetic bearings. p. 126, § 189. 14. Can the angle at any station be checked by calculated bearings when there is local attraction at that station? *Remark,* p. 126. 15. Suppose that when an angle is measured at the second station, the calculated bearing and the magnetic bearing of the line to the third station do not agree, and that this discrepancy continues at succeeding stations, what would this indicate? 16. Is a true north and south line ever used as a basis for calculated bearings? *Note,* p. 127, p. 124, § 185. 17. What is the check for a closed polygon? p. 127.

Note: For additional questions pertaining to the compass, see Exercise Co-2, page 70 of this book, and for questions pertaining to the calculation of bearings, see page 116 of this book.

Exercise Tr-6.

Measuring the Interior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon to the Left.

References and Equipment, same as for the preceding exercise.

Directions: Repeat the preceding exercise, measuring angles to the left instead of to the right. Keep notes same as for corresponding exercise, except it should be noted that all angles are measured to the left from the backsight. Keep magnetic and calculated bearings.

Exercise Tr-7.

Measuring the Exterior Angles of a Triangle or Polygon to the Left.

Same as the preceding exercise, except exterior angles are measured instead of interior.

Exercise Tr-8.

Measuring the Deflection Angles of a Triangle or Polygon.

References: Page 117, § 168; page 120, § 179; page 155, § 221.

Equipment: See page 29 of this book.

Directions: 1. See general directions, page 29 of this book. 2. Measure the deflection angles of the triangle or polygon according to the method explained on page 120. Keep notes according to Form 5, page 173, following as far as possible the method of procedure on page 155. Assuming the magnetic bearing of the first backsight as a basis, keep the calculated bearings as in the preceding exercises.

Suggestion: If preferred, stakes may be set at random so that the line progresses more or less in one general direction instead of forming a polygon.

Questions: 1. What system of numbering for the graduations on the limb is preferable for measuring deflection angles? p. 75, § 96 (c); also *Remark,* bottom of p. 73. 2. Give a valuable check used in the deflection angle method. p. 155, § 221 (b). 3. If it were desired to double deflection angles, how would you proceed? p. 100, § 138 (e). 4. What error is thus eliminated? 5. What check may be used when calculated bearings are kept? Bottom of page 155. 6. Explain how setting the *B* vernier at the original deflection angle gives a double check. Step 8, p. 155. 7. Explain two forms for keeping notes for deflection angles and the advantages and disadvantages of each. pp. 173, 174.

Exercise Tr-9.

Survey of a Triangle or Polygon by the First Azimuth Method.

References: Pages 114, 115; p. 120, § 180 (a), (b), (c); also p. 156, § 222.

Equipment: See page 29 of this book.

Directions: 1. See general directions, page 29 of this book. 2. Survey the triangle or polygon by the first azimuth method,

p. 121, going around the triangle clockwise. Assume a magnetic north and south line for a meridian. Keep notes according to Form 7, p. 174. Check all azimuths by magnetic bearings.

Suggestion: If the party consists of two men, one should run the transit until the exercise is completed, and then the work may be repeated, the other man running the transit and going around the triangle or polygon in the opposite direction.

Questions: 1. Define the azimuth of a line. p. 114. 2. Why do many surveyors measure azimuths from the south as a starting-point instead of the north? 3. What is the chief advantage in measuring azimuths from the north? 4. Is the azimuth always measured from a north and south line as a reference line? § 160(c). 5. Explain the difference between forward azimuth and back azimuth. 6. Compare the method of measuring azimuths with the method of measuring bearings. p. 115, § 161. 7. Give additional facts to remember about azimuths. § 161. 8. By means of a sketch explain the first method of running transit lines by azimuths. p. 121. 9. What precautions should be taken in beginning a survey by azimuths? p. 123, § 182. 10. How may azimuths be checked by the magnetic needle? p. 124, § 184. 11. If at any station the azimuth and bearing of a line disagree, does it necessarily follow that the former is incorrect? p. 123, §182. 12. What other meridians are used besides the magnetic north and south line? p. 124, §§ 185, 186. 13. If a true north and south line is used as a reference meridian, how should the compass be adjusted? 14. What is the advantage of such a meridian? 15. What is the disadvantage of using a line assumed at random as a reference meridian? § 186. 16. What is meant by orienting the transit? p. 125. 17. In step 5, p. 156, how does setting the vernier at the forward azimuth act as a check? If the line of sight does not exactly strike the foresight, what should be done?

Exercise Tr-10.

Survey of a Triangle or Polygon by the Second Azimuth Method.

References: Page 122, § 180 (d), §§ 181, 183; also p. 156, § 222 (b)

Equipment: See page 29 of this book.

Directions: 1. See general directions, page 29 of this book. 2. Proceed as in the preceding exercise, but use the second azimuth method instead of the first.

Questions: 1. By means of a sketch explain the second azimuth method. p. 122. 2. Compare step by step the two azimuth methods. § 181. 3. Give the advantages and disadvantages of each of the two azimuth methods. § 183.

Note: If time permits, repeat this problem but go around the triangle or polygon counter-clockwise.

Exercise Tr-11.

Survey of a Triangle or Polygon by the Method of Bearings.

References: Page 125, § 188; also p. 156, § 222 (d).

Equipment: See page 29 of this book.

Directions: 1. See general directions, page 29 of this book. 2. Assume either a true north and south line or a magnetic north and south line as a reference meridian, and proceed exactly as directed in Exercise Tr-9, but use the method of bearings as explained on page 125 instead of the method of azimuths.

Questions: 1. Explain by a sketch the method of running transit lines by bearings. 2. Which of two zeroes on the limb should be called the north zero, and why, in most cases, would this zero really be nearer the south end of a telescope pointed north? *Note,* bottom of p. 125. 3. What is a common mistake in this method? Caution, p. 126. 4. What precautions should be taken in starting the survey? Note, p. 126.

Note: As this method of bearings is not commonly used, it may be well *to omit* the field work in this exercise, simply discussing the above questions *in class*

Exercise Tr-12.

Questions on the Methods of Running Transit Lines or Traverses.

Reference: Pages 127-131.

Questions: 1. Give the advantages and disadvantages of the direct angle method. p. 127. 2. Give the method of procedure for the direct angle method at any one station, (a) when angles are not doubled; (b) when angles are doubled. p. 154. 3. Give the advantages and disadvantages of the deflection angle method. p. 128. 4. Give the method of procedure for the deflection angle method. p. 155. 5. Give the advantages and disadvantages of the azimuth method. p. 128. 6. Give the method of procedure for the azimuth method. p. 156. 7. Give the advantages and disadvantages of the method of bearings. p. 129. 8. Give the advantages and disadvantages of the method of calculated bearings. p. 129. 9. Give the advantages and disadvantages of the method of measuring angles by repetition. p. 130. 10. For what purposes are transit lines used? p. 130. 11. Does a system of transit lines necessarily close? p. 130. 12. Does it make any difference whether the exterior or interior angles of the polygon are measured? p. 130. 13. What is the check for the sum of the interior angles of a polygon? p. 119. 14. What is meant by the error of closure? To what is it due? p. 119. 15. Name four methods of running transit lines. 16. What is the principal difference between the direct angle and the deflection angle methods? 17. What are the three different kinds of meridians used in the azimuth method? When would you use one and when the other? p. 130. 18. Give two methods of orienting the transit in the azimuth method. p. 131. 19. What does a discrepancy between the azimuth and the magnetic bearing of a line indicate? p. 131. 20. What is the purpose of keeping calculated bearings, and when would you use this method? p. 131. 21. Name some of the places where any method of checking foresight lines by the magnetic needle would be useless. p. 131. 22. When would you use the method of doubling angles? p. 131.

GROUP Ts.

TRANSIT SURVEYS.

The first three exercises in this group are intended for class-room discussion, the object being to help the student to gain a working knowledge of the general methods used in making an ordinary transit survey. He will then be better prepared to undertake the actual surveys suggested in the last exercise of this group.

Exercise Ts-1.

Discussion of the Methods of Locating Details.

(For questions on the methods of locating details by linear measurements only, see page 15 of this book.)

1. Give the general method of locating objects from transit lines. p. 133. 2. Are all parts of the same object always located from one transit station? p. 133. 3. Give a common method of locating objects by angles and distances. p. 134, § 195 (a). 4. Give the corresponding method for azimuths and distances. 5. Give the method of locating a building by prolonging one side until it intersects the transit line. p. 135. 6. Give a method for locating large or irregular curves. p. 135. 7. Give the method of locating a point by an angle and a distance, when the distance is measured from some fixed point other than the transit station. Illustrate by the location of a building. p. 136, § 195 (d). 8. How is the method of the preceding question used for determining the direction of a street line? § 195 (e). 9. Explain the method of locating an irregular line, as, for example, the bank of a stream, by a base line and two intersecting angles. p. 137, § 196. 10. Give some practical suggestions for locating points on the water by the method of the preceding question, i.e. methods of taking angles, of keeping notes and of giving signals. p. 203, § 261. 11. Give the three-point method of locating points on the water. p. 137, § 197. 12. Give four methods of locating boundary lines. p. 141. 13. Give the advantages and disadvantages of the different methods of the preceding question. pp. 141, 142; also § 216. 14. What are the two most common methods of locating details? p. 156, § 223.

Note: The above questions should be supplemented by a careful discussion of the methods used for locating details in the various surveys illustrated on pages 176 to 190. (See _Questions_ 22 to 28 of the next exercise.) Study _with special_ care Illustration V p. 184, as it shows a large variety of methods _of locating_ details.

Exercise Ts-2.

Discussion of the Methods of Keeping Field Notes.

Reference: Chapter XV, page 164.

Questions: 1. What can you say regarding the different methods of keeping field notes? p. 164. 2. Why should notes pertaining to transit lines be distinguished from all other notes? p. 165. 3. Give several methods of accomplishing this result. 4. Explain the three general forms used in keeping notes? 5. When can the tabulated form be used to advantage? 6. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the sketch method? 7. Give suggestions for keeping notes by the combination method. p. 166. 8. When should notes read from the bottom of the page upward? 9. What two kinds of data should field notes include? p. 167. 10. Give suggestions for avoiding crowded notes. 11. How are several pages of notes made continuous? 12. Give suggestions for a general sketch of transit lines. p. 168. 13. What must be made clear in the notes regarding any linear measurement? Regarding any angle? 14. What is the difference between entering an angle in the notes as *ABC* and *CBA?* (See *Note,* p. 90.) 15. What else must be understood to make a notation such as *ABC* perfectly definite? p. 117. 16. What should be a constant thought in keeping notes? *Suggestions,* p. 169. 17. What are the advantages of Form 1, p. 170? Disadvantages? 18. Interpret the notes on p. 172; give the advantage and disadvantages of this form. 19. Interpret Form 4, p. 173. What unnecessary check seems to have been employed, judging from the notes as they stand? (See *Comments,* p. 154.) 20. Interpret Form 5, p. 173; give the advantages and disadvantages of this form: compare it with Form 6, p. 174. 21. Interpret form 7, p. 174. 22. Describe how the survey on page 177 was made, explaining how the notes for each step were recorded. 23. Describe how the survey on page 179 was made, and comment upon the notes. 24. Describe how the survey shown on the insert sheet opposite page 190 was made. Comment upon special features of the notes. p. 181. 25. Describe the survey on p. 183 and comment upon the notes. 26. Interpret the notes of Illustration V on the insert sheet opposite p. 190, explaining carefully how each point was located. 27. Interpret the notes on p. 187. 28. Interpret the notes on p. 189, and explain important steps in the survey.

Exercise Ts-3.

Discussion of Practical Questions of Field Work in Transit Surveying.

1. Describe the signals commonly used in field work. p. 146. 2. Give the general method of making a transit survey. p. 146; p. 132, §§ 192, 193. 3. Give different methods of establishing a transit station. § 207. 4. Give methods of marking guard stakes. 5. Give suggestions for numbering or lettering stations. p. 147. 6. Give suggestions for choosing a place for a transit station. p. 148. 7. Give methods of referencing a station. p. 148, p. 54, p. 203. 8. What is the first consideration governing field work? p. 149, § 214. 9. What relation between field work and office work should be kept in mind? p. 149. 10. Give suggestions for determining where to run transit lines. p. 149. 11. Illustrate the preceding question by different methods of making a boundary survey, compare the different methods, and show how the field work and office work may be affected by the choice of stations. p. 150. 12. What method of running transit lines would you use for city work? what method for country surveying? for stadia and topographic surveying? p. 151. 13. In what kind of work is the deflection angle method used? p. 151. 14. Are different methods ever combined in the same survey? p. 151. 15. Give suggestions for running transit lines with reference to precautions taken and checks used. p. 152. 16. What are some of the precautions and checks involved in any systematic method of procedure? p. 153. 17. Why should some systematic method of procedure be followed? *Remark*, p. 154. 18. Give the method of procedure for the direct angle method when angles are not doubled; when angles are doubled. p. 154. 19. Give the method of procedure for the deflection angle method. p. 155. 20. Give the method of procedure for the azimuth method. p. 155. 21. When several methods of locating a detail may be employed, give some of the considerations which would influence you in the choice of method. p. 156. 22. Give suggestions for selecting points of an object to be located. p. 157. 23. In filling in the details of a survey, should all measurements be taken with equal accuracy? p. 157. 24. Give suggestions for *locating street* lines. p. 158. 25. In locating buildings, what is

always necessary to complete the work? *Practical suggestions*, p. 158. 26. Should the lengths of boundary lines be measured? 27. If the corner of a building is 100 feet from the transit, and the map is to be plotted to the scale of one inch equals 50 feet, how close should the angle to a corner be read for the purpose of locating the corner by angle and distance? See *Question*, p. 158; also p. 105, § 147. 28. Give some general suggestions for staking out work. p. 158. 29. Discuss the different methods of keeping field notes. pp. 164, 165, 166. 30. Give general suggestions for keeping field notes. pp. 167–169. 31. Summarize the important points brought out in the discussion of errors. p. 159, § 226. 32. What are the permissible errors of closure for different classes of work? p. 160, § 227. 33. Discuss the duties of the different members of a transit party. p. 161.

Exercise Ts-4.

Transit Survey of a Small Area.

Reference: Chapter XIV, p. 145.

Equipment: See Art. 204, p. 145. If the party consists of four men the chainmen should divide between them the equipment of the axeman and flagman.

Directions: Make a survey of a small tract of land, locating all important features such as boundaries, buildings, and fences. Use the direct angle method of running transit lines; *double* all transit line angles, but do *not* double angles in locating details. *Follow carefully* the method of procedure given in *Article* 220 (*b*), page 154.

Note: At the beginning of this exercise it is well for the instructor to take each party over the tract to be surveyed, discussing where to run the transit lines (p. 149), and choosing, tentatively, places for transit stations (p. 148). It should be clearly understood what details are to be located, though the choice of method for locating each point may be left to the student. Methods of marking guard stakes, of keeping notes, of locating details and other questions pertaining to field work suggested in the three preceding exercises should be discussed thoroughly before beginning this exercise.

Exercises similar to this but involving *different* methods of running transit lines should be given also. It is better to make several small surveys by different methods than to make one large survey in which only one method of running transit lines is used.

GROUP Tp.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS IN TRANSIT SURVEYING.

The first seven exercises in this group are illustrations of geometrical and trigonometrical problems which occasionally arise in transit surveying, but which are of too infrequent occurrence to be considered a part of routine field work. The remaining three exercises are special problems in staking out work.

Exercise Tp–1.

Practice in Triangulation.

Reference: Chapter XVI, page 191.

Equipment: Transit, reading preferably to 30 or 20 seconds.

Directions: 1. Establish several tripod signals similar to that described on page 198, § 252. This should be done once for all by the whole class. 2. Measure the angles at each station according to the method described in § 250. Keep notes according to form on p. 197.

Suggestions: Each man in the squad should measure as many angles as time permits, using different transits if practicable. Limits of error should be established by the instructor. See p. 199, § 253. If desired, a base line may be laid out and a regular network of triangles established, although it is probably better to leave this until a regular survey is made, as the main object of this exercise is to accustom the student to the method of measuring angles.

Questions: 1. What is meant by triangulation and a network or system of triangles? p. 191. 2. When would triangulation be employed? § 244 (a). 3. How large an area may be covered by triangulation in *plane* surveying? p. 191, § 244. 4. Give some of the sources of error in triangulation. p. 191. 5. Give some of the things to be considered in the choice of stations. p. 192. 6. What are some of the things to be considered in choosing a place for a base line? p. 193. 7. If the base line is laid off on a railroad track, how may the ends of the base be transferred to points not on the railroad? Bottom of p. 193. 8. When are new or additional base lines introduced in an extensive survey? 9. What considerations govern the length of the base line? p. 194. 10. Give different methods of measuring a base line. p. 194. 11. If it is impossible to establish a single line of sufficient length for a base line, how would you proceed? *Remark*, p. 193. 12. What angles are measured in triangulation? p. 194. 13. Give the sources of error which should be eliminated in the measurement of angles. p. 194. § 250. 14. Give a method of procedure involving the method of repetition. p. 195. 15. Give some practical suggestions for measuring angles. p. 196. 16. Give suggestions for keeping field notes for triangulation. p. 198. 17. Give some practical suggestions for constructing signals. p. 198. 18. What should be the diameter of the mast? p. 199. 19. What errors are allowable in centering a mast over a station? p. 199. 20. What is meant by the eccentricity of a station? Give an illustration. p. 199. 21. Give examples of the accuracy attained in actual practice. p. 199, § 253. 22. How may trigonometric leveling be combined with triangulation? p. 200.

Exercise Tp–2.

To Prolong a Straight Line through an Obstacle.

References: Page 219, §§ 276, 277.

Equipment: Transit, steel tape, stakes, hatchet, sight poles, and chain pins.

Directions: 1. Drive two stakes, *A* and *B*, from 150 to 200 feet apart. 2. Prolong this line through an imaginary obstacle by the second method of § 277 (a), p. 220. 3. Check by the third method. 4. After the work has been checked by the third method, sight along the line through the imaginary obstacle as an additional check.

Field Notes: Make a complete sketch showing all angles and distances measured or laid off. Show the error made in alignment.

Suggestion: For class work an imaginary obstacle is better than a real obstacle, as it permits the check of step (4) above. If time permits, however, it is well to repeat the problem, running a line through a real obstacle instead of an imaginary one.

Questions: 1. When is the rectangle method of Fig. 277 (a) a satisfactory one to use? 2. How can short backsights be avoided in the rectangle method? 3. What is the advantage of the equilateral-triangle method as compared with the third method of § 277? 4. What is the sole advantage of the third method? 5. Give practical suggestions for laying off the angles.

Note: Problems Tp–2 to Tp–6 are special cases of triangulation, and if great accuracy were required refined methods of measuring base lines and angles would be employed. It is sufficient, however, for class work, to dispense with this, using only such precautions as are taken in ordinary transit surveying.

Exercise Tp–3.

To Run a Line between Two Given Points when an Obstacle Intervenes.

Reference: Page 221, § 277 (b).

Equipment: Transit, tape, hatchet, stakes, and sight poles.

Directions: 1. Drive two stakes *A* and *B* from 200 to 300 feet apart. 2. Imagine an obstacle about half way between them, and run a line from *A* to *B* by the first method of Fig. 277 (b). 3. Check by the second method of Fig. 277 (b). 4. Sight from *A* to *B* as a final check.

Field Notes and Suggestions: See preceding problem.

Questions: 1. Draw a sketch illustrating a third method. Compare the two methods of Fig. 277 (b).

Exercise Tp–4.

To Measure between Two Points when One is Inaccessible.

Reference: Page 222, § 277 (c).

Equipment: Transit, steel tape, hatchet, stakes, sight pole, and chain pins.

Directions: 1. Drive two stakes *A* and *B* from 200 to 300 feet apart, and assume *B* to be inaccessible. 2. Find the distance from *A* to *B* by the first method, Fig. 277 (c). 3. Check the distance *AB* by the second method. 4. Measure the distance *AB* with the tape as an additional check.

Field Notes: 1. Make a sketch showing all angles and distances measured or laid off. 2. Arrange computations systematically, and give the discrepancy between the lengths of *AB* as found in steps (2) and (3) and its length as found by measurement with the tape.

Questions: 1. Compare the first and second method. 2. Give a third method that may be used when both ends of the line are accessible. 3. How may each of the three methods be checked without resorting to a different method? 4. Explain by means of a sketch how to measure the distance between two given points when one is invisible from the other and is also inaccessible. p. 223.

Exercise Tp–5.

To Measure between Two Points when Both are Inaccessible.

Reference: Page 223, § 277 (e).

Equipment: Transit, steel tape, stakes, hatchet, chain pins, and sight pole.

Directions: 1. Drive two stakes, *A* and *B*, from 200 to 400 feet apart, and assume both points to be inaccessible. 2. Lay off a convenient base line *CD*, and find by triangulation the distance *AB* as explained in § 277 (e). 3. Measure the distance *AB* with a tape as a check.

Field Notes: 1. A complete sketch showing all distances and angles measured or laid off. 2. A systematic arrangement of all computations. 3. Give the discrepancy between the computed length of *AB* and its length as measured with the tape.

Suggestions: In this problem it is well to measure the angles and the triangles by the method of repetition. Doubling the angles will be sufficient unless the base line is measured with great accuracy, when the method on p. 195 may be employed.

Exercise Tp–6.

To Measure the Height of an Inaccessible Point.

Reference: Page 223, § 277 (f).

Equipment: Transit, steel tape, hatchet, stakes, chain pins, and sight pole.

Directions: 1. Find the height of some inaccessible point as the top of a flag pole, a point on a high building, or some other definite point, by the method explained in § 277 (f). The elevation of the inaccessible point should be determined with reference to some definite point or bench mark near the ground. 2. Repeat the problem as a check, using a different base line.

Field Notes: A sketch showing all angles and distances measured. A systematic arrangement of all computations. Give the discrepancy between the first and second results.

Suggestion: If desired, two or more parties may work simultaneously determining the elevation of the same inaccessible point, and thus save the time required for repeating the exercise as a check.

Note: Notice that the height required is measured from a point on the ground and not from the supporting axis of the telescope. This involves finding the height of the supporting axis with respect to the point on the ground, and this may be found either by the vertical angle method, or, if preferred, by the use of the leveling rod.

Exercise Tp–7.

Perpendiculars and Parallels.

(Exercise for the blackboard and notebook.)

Reference: Page 224, § 278.

Directions: Explain by means of sketches the following methods:

1. To establish a perpendicular to a given line from any given point; (a) when the given line and the given point are both accessible; (b) when the given line is accessible, but the given point is inaccessible; (c) when the given point is accessible, but the given line is inaccessible. 2. To establish a line through a given point parallel to a given line; (a) when the given line and the given point are both accessible; (b) when the given line is accessible, but the given point is inaccessible; (c) when the given point is accessible, but the given line is inaccessible.

Exercise Tp–8.

To Stake Out a Building.

References: Page 209, § 266; also p. 158, § 224.

Equipment: Transit, tape, hatchet, stakes, sight pole.

Directions: 1. Drive two stakes *A* and *B* from 300 to 400 feet apart. Let these represent merestones which determine a street line. 2. Set stakes for the house whose dimensions are given on p. 183, making the front of the house parallel to and

30 feet from the street line AB and at some fixed distance from A measured along the street line.

Field Notes: Make a complete sketch similar to that on p. 210, showing all measurements made, dimensions of the house and the location of reference points; indicate also all points where the transit is set up. Give the discrepancy, if any, between the lengths of the diagonals of the reference rectangle.

Suggestions: 1. As it is usually impracticable in class work to actually set batter-boards, a stake should be driven wherever a point would be fixed on a batter-board. 2. Before beginning the problem, the student should make a rough sketch and plan the work so that it may be done in the shortest time without sacrificing accuracy.

Questions: 1. Give some general suggestions for staking out work. p. 158, § 224. 2. What is the usual method of setting batter-boards, and at what elevation? p. 208, §§ 265, 266. 3. Assuming that the top of a foundation will be wholly below the existing surface of the ground so that when the building is first staked out it is impossible to set the batter-boards at the proper elevation, how would you proceed? 4. Give the general method of staking out a building. p. 209. 5. Sketch another method which is as good as, or better than, the one used for staking out the house on p. 210. 6. Where should reference points be placed? § 266 (b). 7. Give at least two or three different methods for staking out a building whose front is on line with an existing building.

Questions on Staking Out a House Lot, a Highway, a Retaining-wall, an Abutment, and a Tunnel: 1. Give the general method of staking out a house lot. p. 210. 2. Give different methods of marking the corners of the boundaries. p. 211. 3. Give the general method for staking out a highway, together with some practical suggestions. p. 212. 4. Explain the general method of giving lines for a retaining-wall. p. 213. 5. Which lines of a retaining-wall are usually staked out? 6. How are lines given for an excavation? p. 213. 7. When retaining-walls are built in sections, how may they be staked out? p. 213. 8. When walls are on a curve, how are stakes set? p. 214. 9. Illustrate by a sketch how you would set stakes for a wing abutment. 10. How would you proceed in the preceding question if the face of the abutment is in the water where the transit cannot be set up? 11. Explain the general method of giving the line for a tunnel. 12. When the preliminary straight line between the ends of a tunnel cannot be run because of obstacles, how would you proceed?

Note: If time permits, additional exercises suggested by the above questions may be given in staking out work.

Exercise Tp–9.

To Locate Piers for a Bridge.

References: Page 215, § 275, and Chapter XVI, p. 191.

Equipment: Transit, tape, spring balance, thermometer, ax, stakes, leveling rod, sight poles.

Directions: 1. Assume two points *A* and *B* from 400 to 600 feet apart; let these points determine the axis of the bridge. 2. Lay off base lines of suitable lengths at *A* and *B*. 3. Find the distance from *A* to *B*, and locate a pier half-way between them according to the method explained in § 275 (b) and (c). 4. After the center of the pier has been established, not before, measure the distances from this point to each end of the axis as a check on the computed values.

Field Notes: 1. Make a large, open sketch showing the base lines, the axis of the bridge, the values of all angles measured and the values of all angles turned off in the location of the pier. 2. Keep the field notes for the triangulation according to the form on p. 197. 3. Arrange computations for triangulation according to the form on p. 399, or, better still, that on p. 400. The form used in determining the probable error of the base line is given on p. 59.

Suggestions: 1. Select a place for this exercise where the stakes for each base line may be set with their tops on a level. As considerable time is necessary for setting these stakes, they may be driven once for all and used by different parties. The work may be further shortened by permitting one party to work on one side of the imaginary river and the other party to work on the other side. The work may be changed for different parties by changing slightly the lengths of the base line or the distance between the two stakes *A* and *B*. When the time comes for establishing the center of the pier, it will be convenient to do this on a board platform (a table turned upside down will answer the purpose).

2. If desired, the triangulation for determining the length of the axis *AB* may be done on one day, the necessary computations made in the evening, and the angles turned off for locating the pier on another day. Of course, if time permits, two or more piers may be located instead of one.

Questions: 1. Give the two steps involved in locating a bridge pier. p. 216, § 275. 2. Give an ideal method. § 275 (a).

3. Is this method often practicable? 4. Give the general method. § 275 (b). 5. Why is it undesirable to choose both base lines on the same shore and on the same side of the bridge, or on opposite shores, one above, the other below the bridge? 6. Why is it not worth while to lay off the base line at right angles to the axis? 7. Give suggestions for referencing and protecting hubs. p. 217. 8. Give suggestions for choosing the location and the length of a base line. pp. 217 and 193. 9. When there are several piers, are they always located from the same point on a base line? p. 217. 10. What is done when the conditions on the shore are unfavorable for base-line measurement? p. 217. 11. What should be the limit of error for the sum of the most probable values of the three angles in each of the main triangles? p. 218. 12. Describe the method for laying off the angles. p. 218. 13. When a pier is built in a movable caisson, how is the latter kept in place? 14. How does the method of giving points for a rectangular pier differ from that used for round piers? p. 218.

Exercise Tp–10.

To Stake Out a Circle with a Transit and a Tape.

Reference: Page 204, § 263.

Equipment: Transit, steel tape, ax, and stakes

Directions: Stake out a complete circle whose radius (preferably not less than 300 feet) will be given by the instructor.

Field Notes: 1. All computations neatly arranged on the right-hand page. 2. Before beginning to stake out the curve, work up the field notes in a form similar to that for deflection angles on p. 174. See also *suggestion* (3), p. 207.

Suggestions: In this exercise C may be taken as 100 feet, and R is given, hence D is easily calculated. In the field work, follow the general method outlined in step (4), p. 206, and also the directions for "picking up" a tangent, p. 206.

If desired, additional exercises may be given, as, for example, to connect two tangents by a circular arc (see p. 206, § 263 (*f*)). If, however, the student is to have a course in railroad curves, it is better to do all such work in connection with that course.

Questions: 1. Define tangent, angle of intersection, deflection angle, and chord. 2. Prove that $T = R \times \tan \frac{1}{2} I$. 3. Prove that $\sin D = \frac{1}{2} C \div R$. 4. Prove that $T = (C \times \tan \frac{1}{2} I)$

$\div$ 2 sin D. 5. Define sub-chord, sub-deflection angle, length of curve, and degree of curve. 6. How is the length of curve usually found? 7. What is the degree of curve in this exercise? 8. What is the length of curve in this exercise? 9. If 50-foot chords were used in this exercise, what would be the new values for the deflection angle and the sub-deflection angle? 10. Describe the general method of running in a circular curve between two tangents. p. 206. 11. Explain the method of "picking up" a tangent, giving two rules to be kept in mind. p. 206. 12. Prove that if a transit is at 3, the backsight at 2, and the vernier at 2 D, the line of sight may be made tangent to the curve by setting the vernier at 3 D. 13. Why should the index reading for $P.T.$ equal $\frac{1}{2}$ I?

GROUP L.

EXERCISES IN LEVELING.

The first five exercises in this group offer the student an opportunity to learn the use of the level and the leveling rod, and to study the sources of personal and instrumental errors. The next three exercises afford practice in differential leveling and in profile leveling, while the ninth exercise is a class-room discussion of errors in leveling. The remaining three exercises take up the use of the hand level, trigonometric leveling and barometric leveling.

Exercise L-1.

Setting up the Level.

References: Page 226, also 544.

Equipment: A level for each student, or as many levels as are available.

Directions: 1. Set up a level as directed on p. 226. 2. Perform each of the three steps in the experiment described on p. 227.

Questions: 1. What is the shape of the interior surface of the glass tube of a spirit-level? p. 544. 2. Upon what does the sensitiveness of a bubble depend? p. 544. 3. Can a bubble be too sensitive for ordinary work? 4. What is the fluid used for the level-bubble? p. 544. 5. Why does the length of the bubble change from time to time, and is it more sensitive when long or when short? p. 544. 6. What is the *axis of a bubble tube?* p. 544. 7. What should be the first precaution taken in setting up a level? p. 251, § 322, also 271, § 349. 8. If it is impossible to set up a level so that the bubble will remain in the center for all positions of the telescope, what does this indicate?

Additional Questions: Many of the questions asked in Exercise T-1 (Setting up the Transit) may also be asked in connection with setting up the level. If the construction of the telescope has not already been discussed in connection with transit work, the instructor should explain briefly the different parts of the telescope (see photograph, p. 551), or, if thought best, to add to the questions given above those on pages 96 and 97 of this book.

Exercise L-2.

Reading the Leveling Rod.

References: Pages 227 to 232.

Equipment: Several leveling rods for each squad, including targets with scales and targets with verniers.

Directions: 1. Set the target at random without extending the rod. Read and record the setting of the target. 2. Record the instructor's reading. 3. Repeat for a number of settings for a "low rod." 4. Apply to each rod the two tests described in § 286, p. 232. 5. Read and record several settings for a "high rod."

Suggestions: It is well for an instructor to set the targets at random on several rods, and to require the members of his squad to read these settings in rotation. He should take pains to have some of the settings near the "danger points" where are likely to occur such common mistakes as are noted at the bottom of p. 229 and on p. 231. The exercise should be continued until each member of the squad can read any target setting, for either a "low" or a "high" rod.

Questions: 1. What two methods are there of reading a rod in leveling? § 281, p. 227. 2. What is the difference between a target with a scale and a target with a vernier? 3. How can you estimate a reading to thousandths on a target with a scale? 4. What are some of the common mistakes in reading a leveling rod, and what points should be fixed in mind as "danger points"? p. 229. 5. Explain the difference between the methods of reading a target with a scale and a target with a vernier. § 285. 6. Explain how to read a "high rod," and the tests which should be applied to every rod when using it for the first time. §§ 284 and 286. 7. What are the different sources of error or mistakes in taking a "high rod" reading? § 284 (a), (b). 8. Into what two classes may leveling rods be divided? p 571. 9. Explain the difference between the New York and the Philadelphia rods. 10. What kind of target is preferable for long sights? p. 572. 11. What is an *angle target,* and for what purpose was it designed? p. 572 and p. 270. 12. Name two special forms of leveling rods. p. 572, § 573 (b). 13. Describe a plumbing level. p. 573. 14. Could stadia rods *p. 574,* be used as self-reading leveling rods?

Exercise L-3.

To Find the Probable Error of Sighting and of Setting a Target.

Reference: Page 270, § 348.

Equipment: Level, leveling rod, tape, ax, stakes.

Directions: 1. Set up the level, and drive stakes approximately in line, at distances of 100, 200, 300, and 400 feet respectively from the level. 2. Hold the rod on the stake at the 100-foot point, set the target so that its center coincides with the line of sight, and record the reading. 3. Move the target up or down a foot or more out of the line of sight and again set it as accurately as possible, holding the rod on the same point on the stake. 4. Repeat the work until five independent settings of the target have been made on each of the four stakes. 5. From the five readings at each stake find the probable error for that stake as explained on pp. 15 to 19.

Field Notes: Record the readings for the different stakes in separate columns. Use the form on p. 19 for determining the probable errors. Arrange all computations systematically.

Suggestions: Set two legs of a tripod in a line parallel to the general direction of the line of stakes, and see that all three legs are reasonably firm before leveling up. When the sun is shining set the level up in the shade. Take every precaution to avoid disturbing the level during the exercise, and be careful to have the bubble in the center of the tube during each sight. The bubble may often be brought into the center by pressing down slightly with the finger on the telescope.

Questions: 1. Give some of the sources of error in sighting. p. 270. 2. What is the effect of refraction? p. 273. 3. What is the best time of day for precise leveling? Bottom of p. 272, also (3) p. 278.

Note: This exercise may be repeated, the readings being made directly from the level without the use of the target. The probable errors at each distance for the two methods may then be compared, thus giving an idea of the relative accuracy of target readings and of direct readings. See p. 271.

Exercise L-4.

Comparison of Readings Taken With and Without the Target.

Reference: Experiment, p. 271.

Equipment: Level, leveling rod, tape, ax, and stakes.

Directions: 1. Set up the level, and drive stakes at distances of 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300, 350, and 400 feet from the level. 2. Take a rod reading on the top of each stake, first without, then with, the target. 3. Record all readings and state conclusions as to how closely one can read at different distances without using the target, and how such readings are affected by distance.

Note: Conclusions should not be drawn from too few data, but by tabulating the results obtained by *all* the members of a class a comparison of the two methods of reading the rod may be made.

Exercise L-5.

To Test the Sensitiveness of a Level Bubble.

Reference: Page 545, § 567 (a).

Equipment: Level, leveling rod, tape, ax and stakes.

Directions: 1. Set up the level, and drive a stake 200 feet away. Test the sensitiveness of the bubble with the leveling rod held on this stake as explained on p. 545. 2. Repeat the test, holding the rod at distances of 300 and 400 feet from the level.

Field Notes: A complete record of the results obtained from the different tests with the mean value of one division in seconds of arc.

Suggestions: See page 545.

Questions: 1. How could a bubble tube other than a telescope level be tested? p. 545. 2. What is a level-trier? 3. Show by means of a sketch that $R = \frac{nd}{h} D$, p. 545. 4. Find the radius of curvature of the bubble tube on the level used in this exercise.

Exercise L-6.

Differential Leveling.

(A Study of the Theory.)

References: Pages 234 to 242.

Equipment: Level, leveling rod.

Directions: 1. Select two points several hundred feet apart, one of them 40 or 50 feet higher than the other. 2. Run a line of levels from the first point to the second and back again to the first point.

Field Notes: Use Form B on p. 240.

Suggestions: For this first exercise in differential leveling, it is well to choose a place where a complete circuit can be made in five or six set-ups. The work may then be repeated, the levelman and the rodman interchanging positions. Too much emphasis should not be placed on the niceties of field work, as the object of this exercise is to acquaint the student with the *theory* of leveling. In the next exercise the methods of *field work* may be studied, and greater precautions taken to obtain accurate results.

Before going into the field, it is well for the instructor to put a sketch on the blackboard similar to that on page 238, with backsight and foresight readings indicated in simple numbers, and then to require each student to work out the notes for this sketch in a form similar to that on page 240. It is also well to discuss the questions given below just before beginning the field work of this exercise.

Questions: 1. What two kinds of work are done in leveling? p. 234, § 288. 2. Define datum line and datum plane. 3. Is a level surface a plane surface? 4. What is taken as a convenient datum the world over? 5. Is the sea level the only datum used? 6. Define bench or bench-mark. 7. Define station, and point out the difference between a station in transit surveying and a station in leveling. 8. Define plane of sight. 9. What are the two essential steps in leveling? p. 235. 10. Is there any difference in practice between measuring *up* to the plane of the sight and measuring *down?* 11. Define height of instrument. 12. Define backsight. 13. How is a backsight used in determining height of instrument? 14. Define foresight. 15. Why are "backsight" and "foresight" unfortunate terms? p. 237. 16. What two terms are sometimes used in place of backsight and foresight? 17. What is the object of backsighting and of foresighting? p. 237. 18. What abbreviations are used in leveling? 19. What two formulas express the theory of leveling, and to what two steps in leveling do they correspond? p. 237. 20. Explain how the elevations of points above the plane of sight may be found. 21. Explain by means of a sketch the general theory of leveling when more than one set-up is necessary. § 299 (c). 22. Are stations in leveling necessarily in a straight line, or may they be taken anywhere? 23. How may the two steps in leveling be remembered? Remark, p. 238. 24. What is an intermediate station and its distinguishing characteristic? p. 238. 25. What is a turning-point, its distinguishing characteristic, and how did it get its name? 26. May a station or a bench-mark be used as a turning-point? p. 239. 27. What are the first and last points sighted at in leveling usually considered? p. 239. 28. Explain why an error made at a turning-point is much more serious than an error made at an intermediate station. 29. What are the advantages and disadvantages of Form A for leveling notes? p. 239. 30. Comment on Form B for leveling notes. p. 240.

Exercise L-7.

Differential Leveling.

(A Study of Field Methods.)

References: Pages 248–258; 260–263.

Equipment: Level, leveling rod, ax.

Directions: From some assumed point as a bench-mark run a line of levels to a second point and return, making a circuit of about 10 set-ups. Keep field notes according to Form B, p. 240.

Suggestions: The theory of leveling having been studied in the preceding exercise, special attention should be paid in this exercise to the methods of field work, especially to those precautions which are necessary for accurate work. If desired, several parties of two men each may run levels over the same circuit, checking every three or four set-ups at a common bench-mark established by the instructor. *It is well to establish a number of permanent bench-marks* differing as much as practicable in elevation, as these benches will be of use later in the course in connection with barometric leveling, trigonometric leveling, and other exercises. If desired, this exercise may be repeated, *all* sights being taken on a *self-reading rod,* no use being made of the target.

Questions: 1. Give the signals used in leveling. p. 248. 2. How may the elevation of the starting-point be obtained? p. 249. 3. How may any elevation be assumed and the notes afterward corrected? Illustration, p. 250. 4. Why should the rodman hold his rod a second time after clamping the target? 5. What should be the lengths of foresights and backsights in ordinary work for the best results? 6. What is the first precaution in setting up a level? p. 251. 7. In going up, or down, hill, how can one avoid taking unequal sights? 8. What is a common mistake of the beginner in setting up a level on steep slopes, and how can this mistake be avoided? p. 251. 9. What chiefly determines the location of turning-points? p. 252. 10. In choosing an object for a turning-point, what should be kept in mind? *Remark*, p. 252. 11. Describe a form of turning-point sometimes used. § 323 (b). 12. Describe two methods of holding a leveling rod. p. 252. 13. Give a method of making sure that the rod is plumb. pp. 252, 270, § 346 (c). 14. Give examples of bench-marks both permanent and temporary. p. 253. 15. Where should bench-marks be established? p. 253. 16. What is the only method of checking field work in leveling? § 329. 17. If sixteen set-ups are necessary to complete a circuit of levels, what should be the approximate limit of error? i.e., the difference between the elevation of the starting-point and the elevation of the same point as determined at the completion of the circuit. p. 254. 18. Give some suggestions for working rapidly in leveling. p. 255. 19. What should be the average speed for class work? *Remark*, p. 255. 20. Give suggestions for the levelman concerning the following points: p. 260. Choosing place for level; leveling on steep slopes; watching the bubble; unnecessary clamping; horizontal cross-hair; sunshade; disturbing instrument; definite signals; adjustment of level; effects of heat and wind; care of the level. 21. Give suggestions for the rodman concerning the following points: See p. 261. Choosing turning-points; length of sights; holding the rod; moving the target; clamping the target; testing the rod; common mistakes in reading; care of the rod. 22. Give duties of levelman; of rodman. p. 263.

Exercise L-8.

Profile Leveling.

References: Page 242, § 306; p. 251.

Equipment: Level, leveling rod, stakes, tape.

Directions: Drive a row of stakes 50 feet apart for a distance of about 1000 feet. Run a line of profile levels, taking the elevation of the ground at each stake. At all intermediate stations read the rod from the instrument without the use of the target, but at turning-points use the target. When the elevation at the last stake has been determined, run back over the line to the starting-point, taking turning-points only, and thus checking the work of the whole exercise.

Field Notes: Keep field notes according to Form E, p. 256, and check the arithmetical work by the method explained on p. 242.

Suggestions: If desired, several parties of two men each may work along the same line of stakes, checking at frequent intervals on the same bench-marks established by the instructor. In this case it will be unnecessary to run back over the line as a check.

Questions: 1. What is an intermediate station? p. 238. 2. Is it necessary to take the elevations at intermediate stations as accurately as at turning-points? 3. Does the rule for checking notes on p. 242 afford any check for intermediate stations? 4. Explain a form of notes that does give a check on intermediate stations. § 303 (e). 5. What are the advantages of Form C, p. 241, for profile notes? 6. In ordinary work how closely should the rod be read at intermediate stations, and should this reading be taken with or without the target? p. 253.

Exercise L-9.

Discussion of Errors in Leveling.

(Exercise for the Class-room.)

Questions: 1. Give some of the sources of error in leveling. p. 268. 2. How may the errors of adjustment be largely eliminated? 3. What precautions should be taken when the bubble is sluggish? p. 268. 4. What is the error in the movement of the object-glass slide, and how may it be eliminated? p. 268, also p. 602, § 586. 5. What is the error due to a defective joint in the leveling rod? p. 269; also *Remark*, p. 232. 6. Give some of the sources of error in manipulating the level. p. 269. 7. How may the error due to the rod being held out of plumb be avoided? 8. Why is this error compensating on turning-points when leveling up and down hill over rolling country? 9. Why is this error not compensating in leveling up hill only or down hill only? 10. Why is it not best to wave the rod when the reading is two feet or less from the bottom of the rod? 11. What errors are due to the accumulation of dirt or grit on the base of the rod or in the joints? 12. Give some of the sources of error in sighting. 13. Explain why the settling of the instrument between the backsight on one turning-point and the foresight on the next is a source of cumulative error. How may this error be avoided? p. 271. 14. What precautions should be taken to avoid errors due to disturbance of the instrument? p. 272. 15. Explain why the settling of the turning-point is a source of cumulative error. 16. Explain why the sun shining on the instrument is a source of cumulative error. p. 273. 17. What is the error due to curvature? p. 272. 18. What is the error due to refraction? p. 273. 19. What is the effect of combining these two errors? p. 273. 20. Give common mistakes in recording. 21. How may errors in computing be discovered? p. 274. 22. How may personal errors be partially eliminated? 23. Recapitulate the most important precautions taken to eliminate errors: (a) mistakes; (b) constant errors; (c) accidental errors. p. 275. 24. How may the precision of leveling be judged? p. 275. 25. How may the total error of a line of levels be expected to vary? p. 276. 26. In a common formula for allowable error what is the usual value of C? p. 276. 27. If a circuit of levels four miles long be completed, what should be the permissible error if the coefficient C is .04? 28. Give some of the most important directions contained in instructions for accurate leveling (p. 277) as regards: number of rodmen; method of rodmen keeping independent readings; weather conditions; foresights and backsights; duties of the bubble tender; adjustment of level; steel turning-points; plumbing levels; permanent bench-marks; permissible error. 29. Give the method of procedure when two rodmen are employed. p. 279. 30. In crossing a wide river explain how the method of reciprocal leveling may be used. p. 243. (See also exercise in reciprocal leveling, page 63 of this book.)

Exercise L-10.

Use of the Hand Level.

Reference: Page 233.

Equipment: Hand level and hand leveling rod, or two hand levels and two rods.

Directions: Find the difference in elevation between two points several hundred feet apart, by means of a hand level, using the second method of § 287, p. 233.

Field Notes: A sketch showing the different steps and the final difference in elevation.

Suggestions: If possible, the leveling should be done between two bench-marks whose elevations have been determined previously by differential leveling, and the difference in elevation should be compared with that obtained by the more accurate method. The party should consist of two men; and, if desired, each may be equipped with a hand level and a 5 foot rod, so that first one and then the other uses the hand level, alternating, as explained in "Routine of the Field Work" bottom of p. 351. If only one hand-level is used, the work may be repeated, the levelman and rodman interchanging positions, and running back over the line to the starting-point.

Questions: 1. How can rough work be done without the use of a rod? p. 233. 2. What is the difference in method between leveling up hill and leveling down hill? p. 233. 3. For what is the hand level chiefly used? p. 233.

Exercise L-11.

Trigonometric Leveling.

References: Pages 244, 264.

Equipment: Transit, leveling rod, and steel tape.

Directions: 1. Find the difference in elevation between two points *A* and *B*, by setting up the transit near *A* and using the first method of "Trigonometric Leveling" on pp. 244, 264. 2. Repeat the exercise, setting up the transit near *B* instead of *A*, the two men in the party interchanging positions.

Field Notes: A sketch showing the method, with all distances and angles; also all computations systematically arranged.

Suggestions: 1. In this exercise the horizontal distances from the transit to each of the two points *A* and *B* is measured with a tape, although in most field work where this method is used, distances are found either by triangulation or with the stadia. If possible, the two points *A* and *B* should be bench-marks whose elevations have been determined previously by spirit leveling, and the difference in elevation obtained in this exercise should be compared with that obtained by spirit leveling. 2. The shortest method is to set the transit up with the end of the supporting axis approximately over either *A* or *B*. If this is impracticable, it will be necessary to determine the height of the supporting axis by a backsight on the nearer station. See *Remark* (b), p. 244.

Questions: 1. Explain the first method of trigonometric leveling. p. 244. 2. In this method, if elevations of points are required with reference to some datum, what is the first step after setting up the transit? p. 244. 3. If the horizontal distances from the transit to the point whose elevation is required cannot be measured directly, how would you proceed? p. 244. (See also Exercise for Determining the Height of an Inaccessible Point, p. 223.) 4. In finding the elevation of any point on the ground with reference to a point under the transit, how would you use a sight-pole in place of a leveling rod? p. 264, *Practical Hint* (a). 5. How may time be saved in computing elevations from vertical angles? p. 264. 6. Show what error may be expected for sights of 200 feet if the horizontal distance is correct but the error in the vertical angle is one minute, ignoring instrumental errors. p. 264. 7. For the same length of sight, what would be the error if the vertical angle of, say, 8 degrees 40 minutes is correct, but the horizontal distance is in error as much as one foot? p. 264. 8. Explain the second method of trigonometric leveling. p. 264. 9. Is the first or the second method most used in topographic surveying, and how are the distances determined? p. 264. 10. How may triangulation and trigonometric leveling be combined, and how do the results compare with spirit leveling? p. 200.

Exercise L–12.

Barometric Leveling.

References: Page 245, § 313; p. 265, § 343.

Equipment: Aneroid barometer, thermometer.

Directions: 1. Hold the barometer on a bench-mark whose elevation has been determined previously by spirit leveling, and set the altitude scale of the barometer to correspond to the elevation of that bench-mark. 2. Without disturbing the altitude scale take readings of the barometer at two or more bench-marks whose elevations are known, and compare the elevations as found by the barometer with the elevations as found by spirit leveling. 3. Repeat the problem but ignore the altitude scale, and proceed as directed on p. 265, § 343 (a). 4. Compare results with those obtained by spirit leveling and with those found by the use of the altitude scale.

Field Notes: Keep a full record in tabular form of the readings of the altitude scale, of the barometer readings in inches, and of the temperature at each bench-mark. Also a systematic arrangement of the computations for reducing readings to altitudes.

Suggestions: In this exercise it is desirable that there should be a considerable difference in elevation between the successive bench-marks selected, and that these elevations should have been determined previously by spirit leveling. The results as obtained by different students going over the same line of bench-marks may be tabulated by the instructor and shown to the class, thus giving an idea of the accuracy to be obtained in barometric leveling. It is well also to use several different aneroid barometers, and, if desired, readings may also be taken with mercurial barometer.

Questions: 1. Describe the aneroid barometer. p. 264. 2. What is the average reading of a barometer at sea level, and the average rate of fall in ascending above the sea level? p. 245. 3. What are the atmospheric sources of error? p. 245. 4. How does temperature affect barometer readings? p. 246. 5. Compare two classes of barometric formulas. p. 246. 6. In ordinary work what sources of error are usually ignored? Bottom p. 246. 7. What are some of the instrumental sources of error? p. 265. 8. Give the method of procedure where single observations are taken. p. 265. 9. Explain the method of simultaneous observations. p. 266. 10. What are the ordinary limits of error? p. 267.

GROUP Lp.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS IN LEVELING.

The exercises in this group deal with various problems in leveling such as setting grade stakes, estimating cut and fill for grading, and staking out a vertical curve.

Exercise Lp–1.

Reciprocal Leveling.

Reference: Page 243.

Equipment: Level, leveling rod, ax, and stakes.

Directions: 1. Drive two stakes *A* and *B* from 300 to 400 feet apart. 2. Imagine these stakes to be on opposite banks of a river so that the level cannot be set up between them, and find the difference in elevation between the tops of the stakes by the method of Reciprocal Leveling. p. 243. 3. Repeat the work, levelman and rodman interchanging positions. 4. Set up the level approximately one-half way between the two stakes, and check the mean result obtained by reciprocal leveling.

Field Notes: Make a sketch showing the approximate distance between stakes as obtained by pacing, the positions of the level and all elevations. See Figure, p. 598. In addition keep the level notes on the left-hand page in the usual form. p. 240.

Questions: 1. Why does reciprocal leveling tend to eliminate the error due to adjustment, the error due to curvature, and refraction? pp. 598, 599, 273.

Exercise Lp–2.

To Set Stakes on a Grade Between Two Fixed Points.

(Special Method.)

References: Page 243, § 310; p. 258, § 334; p. 280, § 357; p. 282, §§ 358, 359.

Equipment: Level, leveling rod, ax, and stakes.

Directions: Choose a place where the slope of the ground is uniform for several hundred feet so that the tops of all stakes can be driven to grade, and drive two stakes A and B several hundred feet apart. 2. Ascertain the difference in elevation between A and B. 3. Set a line of stakes with their tops on grade between A and B, and with 25-foot intervals between stakes. Use the grade rod method (see illustration, top of p. 281) and also § 358 (a). 4. Check the work by setting up the level near stake A and shooting in the grade as explained in § 357 (d), p. 281.

Field Notes: Number the stations 0, 0 + 25, 0 + 50, etc., and keep the notes in a form similar to one of those on pp. 284, 256.

Suggestions: See *Practical suggestions* on pp. 259, 282, and 281.

Questions: 1. Define grade, and grade rod, and illustrate how the grade rod is calculated. p. 243, and also p. 428. 2. Give five different methods of setting grade stakes. p. 258. 3. Give the general method of procedure in setting grade stakes. p. 259. 4. What is the difference between a true grade rod and a field grade rod? p. 259. 5. How close should stakes be driven in ordinary grading? p. 259. 6. Give some practical suggestions for setting stakes. p. 259. 7. What are two common mistakes which occur in setting grade stakes, and how may errors be detected? p. 259. 8. What additional columns should appear in the field notes? p. 260. 9. What is meant by "shooting in" a grade, and what is the best instrument to use for this method? p. 260, also p. 281. 10. In the method of shooting in grades, why is step 4, p. 281, necessary, and how can this step be avoided? Note, p. 281. 11. What is the object in establishing a permanent foresight in step 5, p. 281? 12. How may a convenient permanent foresight be established? *Suggestion* 2, bottom of p. 281. 13. Is the error involved in setting the target opposite to the center of the object glass likely to be large? p. 281. 14. Suppose the surface of the ground to have a uniform slope which, however, is too far above or below the required grade to permit driving stakes to grade, how would you proceed to shoot in the grade? *Suggestion* 4, top of p. 282. 15. Give some practical suggestions for setting grade stakes for a curb. p. 282. 16. Give the general method of laying out grades for pavements as regards, marking gutter lines; center line; use of templet.

Exercise Lp-3.

To Set Grade Stakes Between Two Fixed Points When the Ground is Uneven.

(General Method.)

Reference and Equipment same as for preceding exercise.

Directions: Repeat the preceding exercise, but select a place where the ground is so uneven that the tops of the stakes cannot be set to grade. Use method 2, p. 258, i.e. top of each stake to be a whole number of feet above or below grade. Mark stakes as directed on p. 260.

Question: 1. What is the chief difference between the methods used in this exercise and that of the preceding exercise?

Questions on Giving Grades for a Sewer: 2. Explain the general method of giving grades for a sewer. p. 283. 3. How closely should grades be given for a sewer? 4. How would you proceed when it is impracticable to give elevations at equal distances along sewer line? p. 283. 5. What rough check should always be employed? p. 283. 6. Why should bench-marks be established? p. 283. 7. Describe a form of grade-pole for sewer work. p. 283. 8. Why work in one direction from down hill up hill or *vice versa?* p. 283. 9. Give two methods of measuring between grade-slats, and why are measurements made parallel to the flow line? p. 283. 10. Explain in detail the notes on pp. 284 and 285. See explanation 286.

Questions on Giving Elevations for a Line of Shafting: 11. Give the general method of giving elevations for a line of shafting. p. 287. 12. Why is it convenient to hold the leveling rod upside-down, and illustrate what is meant by a minus grade rod? p. 287.

Exercise Lp-4.

Use of the Gradienter.

Reference: Page 245.

Equipment: Transit equipped with a gradienter, leveling rod, ax, and stakes. (Transit should be in adjustment for leveling.)

Directions: 1. Select a comparatively level piece of ground, and by means of the gradienter set a row of stakes at intervals of 25 feet with their tops driven to a given grade. 2. Check each stake by the grade-rod method explained on p. 259.

Field Notes: On the right-hand page a description of the work with a comparison of the levels obtained by the two methods and the average discrepancy. On the left-hand page the usual form of field notes. p. 284.

Suggestion: This exercise may be given in connection with Exercise Lp-2 if desired.

Questions: 1. Explain the principle of the gradienter. p. 245. 2. How may the gradienter be used for measuring distances? p. 245.

Exercise Lp-5.

To Estimate Cut and Fill for Grading.

References: Page 287, §§ 362, 363; also pp. 429–433.

Equipment: Level, leveling rod, tape, ax, and stakes.

Directions: 1. Select a plot of ground at least 150 feet square, with a rather uneven surface. If no plot with definite boundaries is convenient, mark out one with stakes. 2. Perform the field work necessary to obtain data for estimating cut and fill for grading according to the method of § 362, p. 287. 3. Assuming that the ground is to be graded to a level one foot below the lowest elevation obtained at any stake set in the preceding step, calculate the total cut in cubic yards.

Field Notes: On the right-hand page draw a sketch showing all stakes with numbers and distances, and on the left-hand page keep the level notes in the usual form. p. 240. Use a system of numbering points like that of Figure 402 (c), p. 341.

Suggestions: Follow the practical suggestions given on p. 287. If desired in the third step above, the finished surface may be assumed at such an evation as to require both cut and fill. The problem may be further mplicated by assuming this surface to be on a slope instead of on a level. a rule, however, the more complicated work of calculation should be t for the course in office work, and thus time will be saved in the field.

Questions: Give the general method of field work in getting ıta for estimating cut and fill for grading. p. 287. 2. Give actical suggestions concerning, establishing permanent bench-arks. p. 287; choosing the size of squares. pp. 287 and 432; tra rod readings; system of marking corners; and of laying ıt squares. 3. Give the general method of setting stakes for ading land. p. 287, § 363. 4. What is the customary method ed when the surface of the ground is very uneven, making it cessary to set temporary stakes? *Remark*, p. 288. 5. Give e general method of setting stakes, (a) for a level grade;) for a grade that slopes in one direction only; (c) for a grade at slopes in two directions.

Note: If desired problems may be given in setting grade stakes by each the three methods referred to in the last question above.

Exercise Lp-6.

To Stake out a Vertical Curve.

References: Pages 289–292.

Equipment: Level, leveling rod, ax, and stakes.

Directions: Set stakes for a vertical parabola which shall nnect two gradients assigned by the instructor. Use the ethod of procedure for chord gradients explained on p. 291, 364 (d).

Field Notes: 1. On the right-hand page make a sketch milar to that on p. 290, giving the necessary data; give also l computations systematically arranged. 2. On the left-hand ge record all notes for leveling in the usual form (see p. 284), ving the grade rods and elevations at all points.

Suggestions: If it is desired to drive stakes so that their tops are on ade, this problem must be arranged by the instructor to suit the nature the ground; e.g., a vertical curve of large radius may be staked out on mparatively level ground, using tall stakes for the highest points on the rve. The student can then judge for himself by the appearance of the rve passing through the tops of the stakes whether or not the work is proximately correct. If this method is followed, however, the fact

should be emphasized that it is not the usual method of procedure, but that in most cases each stake is driven, not to grade, but with its top a whole number of feet above or below grade according to method 2, p. 258; or, if this is impracticable, method 3 is followed.

Questions: 1. Give two general methods of finding elevations of points on a vertical curve. p. 289. 2. If the second method is used, why is the vertical scale usually much greater than the horizontal scale? p. 289. 3. Why is the parabola more often used than the circle for vertical curves? p. 289. 4. Explain the method of finding points on a vertical parabola by tangent corrections; by successive chord gradients. p. 290. 5. How may the elevation of any point between stations be found? p. 290. 6. Give two methods of field work for running in a vertical curve. p. 291. 7. Compare the two methods. p. 291. 8. Explain how to make the vertical parabola pass through a point at a given distance above or below *I*. p. 292, § 364 (g). 9. How would you proceed when the rate of change *c* and the two grades *g* and *g′* are given? § 364 (h). 10. Explain methods of checking computations. Top and bottom of p. 292; also illustration, bottom p. 368.

GROUP Co.

EXERCISES IN THE USE OF THE COMPASS

Exercise Co–1.

The Error of Sighting and Reading a Compass.

References: Pages 293–295, p. 101, §143, p. 575, § 575.

Equipment: Compass, tape, sight-pole, ax, and stakes.

Directions: 1. Drive a stake *A* and set up the compass over this stake. 2. Drive a stake *B* 300 or 400 feet away, sight at a pole held on this stake, and read the bearing of the line *AB*. 3. Move the compass through an arc of, say, 90°, thus changing the reading of the needle; then, without sighting at *B*, set the compass at the original bearing of *AB*, line in the pole and measure the distance this line of sight passes to one side or the other of the stake *B*. 4. Repeat the work a number of times, changing the reading of the needle and resetting the compass at the same bearing each time. From a number of results thus obtained, find the probable error of sighting the compass, in units of angular measure. (This will require a rough measurement of the distances from stake *A* to stake *B*.) Use a form similar to that on p. 19 for finding the probable error.

Note: The distance that the line of sight passes to one side or the other of the stake should be entered in the column headed "v." When the probable error has been obtained in units of *linear* measurement this quantity divided by the distance *AB* will give (approximately) the tangent of the *angle* which corresponds to that probable error.

Questions: 1. Explain the method of reading bearings. p. 101. 2. Why are the letters *E* and *W* interchanged in the compass box? p. 102. 3. What precaution should be observed in reading bearings? 4. Why is it not advantageous to place telescopes on compasses? p. 576.

Note: **Questions concerning bearings asked in connection with Exercise Tr–5, page 32, of this book may be discussed in connection with this exercise also.**

Exercise Co-2.

Reading Bearings.

References: Page 101, § 143; pp. 111–113; pp. 541–543; p. 575, § 575.

Equipment: Compass, sight-pole, ax, and stakes.

Directions: 1. Set the compass over a stake *A*. 2. Drive four stakes, *B, C, D*, and *E*, at random, each at least 200 feet from stake *A*, making a four-sided polygon *BCDE* with *A* in the approximate center of this polygon. 3. By sighting at each stake in succession read and record the bearings of the lines *AB, AC, AD*, and *AE*. 4. By the method explained on p. 382, § 435, find the values of the angles *BAC, CAD, DAE*, and *EAB*, and compare their sum with 360°.

Field Notes: 1. Make a sketch showing the bearing of each line and the angles between lines. 2. Arrange the computations for angles according to the form on p. 383.

Questions: 1. What is meant by the dip of the needle? How is this dip counteracted? p. 541. 2. What is meant by the magnetic declination and the magnetic meridian? p. 541. 3. Define isogonic lines and agonic line. p. 543. 4. What is meant by a west declination? an east declination? In the United States how can you remember whether the declination is east or west for any given place? p. 111. 5. What is the approximate magnetic declination at New York? at San Francisco? at Chicago? See Isogonic chart opposite p. 638. 6. What is meant by local attraction, and give some of the sources of such attraction. p. 543. 7. If something about the person deflects the needle, as, for example, a knife or keys in the pocket, is this, strictly speaking, local attraction? p. 543. 8. Name five variations of declination. p. 541. 9. Give some facts concerning secular variation. p. 541. 10. Give some facts concerning diurnal variation. p. 542. 11. Is annual variation the same as the change per year in secular variation? p. 543. 12. To what are irregular variations due? p. 543. 13. Describe various forms of compasses. p. 575. 14. Upon what does the sensitiveness of the needle depend? p. 575. 15. What precautions should always be taken to avoid dulling the pivot? p. 294, § 366 (3). 16. Give the most important requirements for a good compass. p. 575.

17. What is the difference between a plain compass and a vernier compass? p. 575. 18. What is a prismatic compass? p. 576. 19. Describe three tests for the compass. p. 576. 20. How may a needle be remagnetized? 21. If a compass is to be put away for a considerable length of time, what precaution may be taken in order that the needle may retain its magnetic strength? p. 295.

Exercise Co-3.

Compass Survey of a Polygon.

References: Chapter XXIV, p. 293; also § 566, p. 541; § 575, p. 575.

Equipment: Surveyor's compass, chain or tape, sight-poles, ax, and stakes.

Directions: Drive four or five stakes at random, forming an irregular polygon no side of which is less than 150 feet. Beginning at any stake survey this polygon, measuring the forward and back bearings of each line and its length.

Field Notes: According to Form 9, p. 297. (*See Method of Procedure*, p. 298.)

Suggestion: If students work in parties of two each, one man should run the compass entirely around the polygon, and then the problem may be repeated, the other man running the instrument.

Questions: 1. What bearings are usually kept in a survey? p. 113. 2. In compass surveying why is it well to keep back-bearings also? p. 295, § 366 (7). 3. In compass surveying how are the relative positions of any two points determined? p. 293. 4. Give some objections to the use of the compass. p. 293. 5. What are some of the advantages? p. 293. 6. Give some practical suggestions for the use of the compass concerning the following points (see § 366, p. 294): Setting up; method of sighting; method of reading needle; protecting the pivot; avoiding sources of attraction; sluggish needle; duplicate readings. 7. Which sight vane should be next to the eye in sighting, and which end of the needle should always be read? p. 294. 8. Why will reading the bearings at both ends of a line reveal an error due to local attraction? 9. When it is impracticable, because of an obstruction, to take the bearing of a line directly, how may its bearing be found? 10. When is the declination arc used?

p. 295. 11. Give the general method of making a compass survey. p. 295. 12. How may details be located? p. 296. 13. If the bearings taken at the two ends of a line disagree, how may it be determined which is correct? p. 296, § 368 (a). 14. Illustrate how the effects of local attraction may be eliminated from the bearings of a number of connected lines. p. 296. 15. What are three chief sources of error in compass surveying? p. 298. 16. What are the limits of precision in compass surveying? p. 298. 17. Give the general method of rerunning old surveys. p. 298. 18. If in rerunning boundary lines two points on any one line are still preserved, what is the most direct method of ascertaining the change in magnetic declination which has taken place since the original survey? p. 299. 19. Why is it important to give on the map of a compass survey the date of the survey? p. 299. 20. What publication gives magnetic declinations at different places in the United States? p. 299.

GROUP S.

EXERCISES IN THE USE OF THE STADIA.

The exercises in this group afford practice in measuring horizontal distances and in determining elevations by the stadia method.

Exercise S-1.

To Test the Stadia Interval.

References: Pages 300–304.

Equipment: Transit equipped with stadia wires, stadia rod, steel tape, ax, and stakes.

Directions: Test the stadia interval for distances up to 400 feet according to the method explained in § 374, p. 302.

Field Notes: Give the number or the letter and the maker's name of the transit tested. Record the distance corresponding to each reading of the rod, and give the final value of the stadia interval as deduced from these distances.

Suggestions: It is well for several students in the party to test the stadia interval for the same transit, and the final value of this stadia interval should then be deduced from the observations taken by all of the students. If the stadia wires are adjustable and they are found out of adjustment, they should be reset as explained in § 375, p. 303. This may be done by the whole party working together under the supervision of the instructor.

Questions: 1. Define stadia, stadia wires, stadia rod. p. 300. 2. What are some of the different patterns of stadia rods in common use? pp. 573 and 574. 3. Give some suggestions for making a stadia rod. p. 574. 4. Can leveling rods be used as stadia rods? p. 300. 5. Define telemeter; tachymeter. p. 300. 6. Explain by means of a diagram the principle of the stadia. p. 301. 7. How may the constant *C* be determined by direct measurement? p. 302. 8. What is the average value of *C* for transits? for 18-inch wye-levels? *Remark*, p. 302. 9. Give the general method of testing stadia intervals. p. 302. 10. Explain the method of adjusting stadia wires. p. 303. 11. Is it essential that the two stadia wires should be equally distant from the horizontal cross-wire? What advantage is there in having them equally distant? p. 303. 12. Give some practical suggestions for adjusting stadia wires. p. 303. 13. Explain the method of graduating a rod for fixed stadia wires. p. 304. 14. Explain what is meant by interval factor, and how it may be ascertained in any given case. p. 304. 15. Which is to be preferred for accurate work — adjustable or fixed stadia wires? p. 304, *Practical Suggestions.* 16. What effect has refraction in determining the stadia interval (p. 313), and when should tests be made for very accurate work in graduating a rod? p. 304. 17. What are the advantages of using a standard rod and correcting readings by an interval factor? p. 304.

Exercise S-2.

To Measure Distances on Level Ground by the Stadia.

References: Page 304, § 377; p. 307, § 381 (a), (c), (d), (e).

Equipment: Transit with stadia wires, stadia rod, tape, ax, and stakes.

Directions: 1. Set up the transit over stake *A*. 2. Drive four stakes, *B*, *C*, *D*, and *E*, at distances from the transit varying from about 30 feet to 300 feet. 3. Using the stadia method only, find the distances *AB*, *AC*, *AD*, and *AE*. 4. Measure the above distances with the tape. 5. Repeat the exercises until a distance can be measured by the stadia with reasonable certainty.

Field Notes: 1. On the right-hand page give a description of the work; on the left-hand page, arrange in columns side by side the distances to each point as found by the stadia and as measured with the tape. 2. Give also your conclusions as to the limit of accuracy of the stadia method, basing your opinion upon the results obtained in this exercise.

Suggestions: Four students can work to advantage at each transit. While two are measuring by the stadia method, the other two can be measuring with the tape. Each student should take his turn in using the transit, but it is well to use a different set of stakes each time to avoid being prejudiced by the previous readings.

Questions: Give the general method of reading the stadia rod. p. 304. 2. What are some of the common mistakes? p. 305. 3. Give practical suggestions for the use of the stadia. p. 307. 4. How accurately can distances be measured with the stadia? *p. 307* and p. 313, § 386 (a). 5. How long sights should be taken? *p.* 307.

Exercise S-3.

To Measure Horizontal Distances on Sloping Ground by the Stadia.

References: Pages 305–307.

Equipment: Transit with stadia wires, stadia rod, tape, ax, and stakes.

Directions: 1. Set up the transit over stake *A* driven where the ground is sloping. 2. Drive several stakes, *B*, *C*, *D*, *E*, at distances from the transit varying from 30 feet to 300 feet, and at points whose elevations vary considerably. 3. Read and record the inclined distance and the vertical angle to the rod held on each stake. 4. Reduce the inclined readings to horizontal distances as explained on p. 480, § 514. 5. Check the results by measuring horizontal distances with the tape.

Field Notes: Keep field notes on the left-hand page according to Form 11, p. 311, omitting the first two columns. On the right-hand page, arrange in systematic form all computations for reducing inclined distances.

Suggestions: 1. It is well to take some of the stakes above and some below the transit. Oftentimes the rod may be held on top of a fence, in a second or third story window, or at other points of varying elevations, instead of on stakes driven in the ground. 2. In multiplications for reducing inclined distances, use the abridged method. p. 481. It is well also to use reduction diagrams and slide rules.

Questions: 1. By means of a sketch, explain what two corrections are involved when the line of sight is inclined? p. 306. 2. Derive the formula for horizontal distance. p. 306. 3. In measuring horizontal distances with the stadia, when may vertical angles be ignored? Bottom of p. 307.

Exercise S-4.

To Obtain Vertical Distances or Elevations by the Stadia.

Reference: Page 308.

Equipment: Transit with stadia wires, stadia rod, tape, ax, and stakes.

Directions: 1. Set up the transit over the stake *A* driven in sloping ground. 2. Drive stakes *B*, *C*, *D*, and *E* at different elevations, and at distances from the transit varying from 50 to 300 feet. 3. Find the elevation of these stakes with respect to the stake under the transit by the method explained in § 382 (a), p. 308. 4. Repeat the work, finding the elevations of the same stakes with respect to a near-by bench-mark. 5. Find the elevation of each stake with respect to the stake under the transit, by the first method explained in § 341, p. 264, using the tape for measuring horizontal distances. Compare the results thus obtained with corresponding elevations obtained by the stadia (step 3, above).

Field Notes: 1. On the left-hand page keep the field notes according to Form 12, p. 311, omitting the second column. 2. On the right-hand page, keep in a systematic form all computations. 3. Show side by side the elevations as obtained from step 3 and step 5.

Suggestions: 1. See suggestions of the preceding problem. 2. When vertical distances or elevations are involved, *it is essential that the algebraic sign of the vertical angle should be carefully entered in the notes.*

Questions: 1. Explain the method of obtaining elevations of points with reference to a point under or near the instrument (p. 308, § 382 (a)); with reference to a bench-mark, some distance from the instrument. § 382 (b). 2. What is one of the first things to be given definitely in the notes? § 382 (c). 3. Upon what does the accuracy of elevations depend? § 382 (d). 4. If an error as large as 6′ is made in a vertical angle of about 14°, what would be the resulting error in elevation at a point 200 feet from the transit? p. 309. 5. If a vertical angle of about 14° is measured correctly, but the distance as obtained by the stadia is 1 foot greater than or 1 foot less than it should be, what is the resulting error in elevation? p. 309. 6. Is an error in measuring a vertical angle more important in large angles than in small angles, or vice versa? p. 309. 7. Is an error in measuring distances more important when the vertical angle is large, or when it is small? p. 309. 8. In ordinary work, how closely should distances and vertical angles be measured? p. 309. 9. When may vertical angles be read without the use of the vernier, and how closely should the corresponding distances be read? p. 309.

Exercise S-5.

Stadia Survey of a Polygon. (Azimuth Method.)

References: Pages 309–317.

Equipment: Transit with stadia wires, stadia rod, ax, and stakes.

Directions: 1. Drive four stakes to serve as four corners of an irregular polygon the sides of which vary in length from less than 100 feet to more than 200 feet. 2. Survey this polygon by the first azimuth method (p. 121), using the stadia for measuring all distances. Assume a magnetic north and south line as a reference meridian. Find the elevations of all stakes with reference to a bench-mark near the first station by the method explained on p. 308.

Field Notes: Use Form 10, p. 310.

Suggestions: Follow the practical suggestions given at the bottom of p. 309. Two men can work to advantage in each party in this exercise. If time permits, one should run the transit entirely round the polygon, the other acting as rodman. Then the exercise should be repeated, the two men interchanging positions and going round the polygon in the opposite direction. If desired, one of the other methods for running transit lines may be used instead of the azimuth method, or additional exercises may be given similar to this, involving the other methods of running transit lines.

Questions: 1. What methods are used for running transit lines in stadia surveys? p. 309. 2. What methods are used for locating details? p. 309. 3. Give some practical suggestions pertinent to stadia surveying. 4. Compare the forms of notes given on pp. 310 and 311. 5. Give some of the sources of error in stadia surveying. p. 312. 6. Explain why it is unwise during midday hours to take sights which require the line of sight to pass nearer than three feet to the ground. p. 313. 7. What should be the maximum probable error of sighting for distances up to 100 feet? p. 313. 8. What may be expected as a mean discrepancy between measurements made by the stadia and by the tape for distances of approximately 300 feet? p. 314. 9. What is the maximum error likely to occur in ordinary work in finding the elevation of a point from a vertical angle of about 10° and the length of sight of about 300 feet? p. 314. 10. Give the formula for determining the maximum allowable error in the sum of the lengths of the lines traversed. p. 315.

11. Give practical suggestions for stadia surveying concerning the following points: The constant; the stadia wires; method of sighting; reading the rod; length of sight; method of sighting when two stations are too far apart for a single sight; method followed when only a small portion of the rod can be seen; when vertical angles should be taken into account; checking distances between stations; checking distances of side shots; method of determining elevations; point of reference for elevations; the relations between the length of sights and the vertical angle; effect of an error in the adjustment of the telescope level-bubble avoiding needless refinements.

GROUP P.

EXERCISES IN THE USE OF THE PLANE TABLE.

The first five exercises in this group afford practice in the five fundamental methods used in plane-table surveying. The last exercise is one on the "three-point problem."

Exercise P-1.

Plane-table Survey of a Polygon.

(Method of Radiation.)

References: Pages 318–322; also pages 576, 577.

Equipment: Plane-table, and accessories (scale, hard pencil, pencil sharpener, drawing paper, triangles, fine needle, thumb tacks), steel tape, ax, and stakes.

Directions: Drive four stakes at random so that each will be the corner of a polygon, no side of which is less than 150 feet in length. 2. Set up the plane-table near the center of this polygon, and locate the corners by the method of radiation. p. 321. 3. Scale the lengths of the sides of the polygon and mark these lengths on the map; measure the lengths of the sides with the tape and mark these lengths on the map, thus affording a comparison and a check.

Suggestions: In this exercise adopt as large a scale as practicable and have the polygon come within the limits of the board.

Questions: 1. Give some of the requirements for the board of a plane-table. p. 576; for the alidade. p. 577. 2. What are some of the accessories? p. 577. 3. What is a traverse board? p. 577. 4. Give some of the tests for the plane-table. p. 577. 5. What is the peculiar characteristic of plane-table surveying? p. 318. 6. How are linear measurements made? p. 318. 7. For what kind of work is the plane-table especially useful? p. 318. 8. Give some of the advantages of the plane-table. p. 319. 9. Some of the disadvantages. p. 319. 10. Give some suggestions for setting up the plane-table. p. 319. 11. In most plane-table work is it essential to get a point on the map representing the position of the plane-table exactly over the corresponding point on the ground? p. 320. 12. Explain the method of radiation (p. 321). 13. What is the chief use of this method? p. 322.

Exercise P-2.

Plane-table Survey of a Polygon.

(Method of Progression, or Traversing.)

Reference: Page 322.

Equipment: Same as for the preceding exercise.

Directions: 1. Repeat the preceding exercise, using the method of progression, or traversing. p. 322. 2. Check the work by measuring the diagonals of the polygon and comparing the results with the lengths obtained by scaling the map.

Suggestions: 1. Adopt a scale as large as the limits of the board will permit. 2. Throughout the work the *first* sight after orienting the table should be a check sight. These check sights are very important and should never be omitted.

Questions: 1. Explain the method of orienting the plane table. p. 322. 2. To which method of transit surveying does this method correspond? p. 323. 3. How should check sights be taken? p. 323. 4. Is it necessary to set up over the last station? p. 323. 5. If it is impracticable to set up over boundary lines, how would you proceed? p. 323. 6. How can a four-sided polygon be plotted in two set-ups, and how could the positions of the corners be checked? p. 323. 7. Can the method of traversing be used if some of the stations are inaccessible? p. 323. 8. For what kind of work is the method ordinarily used? p. 323. 9. In locating roads, banks of streams, etc., where should the stations be chosen? p. 323. 10. How may details of a plane-table survey be located? p. 323. 11. In a large topographic survey how are primary stations a valuable check on plane-table work? p. 323.

Exercise P-3.

Plane-table Survey of a Polygon.

(Method of Radio-Progression.)

Reference: Page 323.

Equipment: The same as for Exercise P-1.

Directions: Repeat Exercise P-1, using the method of radio-progression.

Questions: 1. Give some practical suggestions for this method. p. 324. 2. Comment on this method. p. 324.

Exercise P-4.

Plane-table Survey of a Polygon.

(Method of Intersection.)

Reference: Page 325.

Equipment: Same as for Exercise P-1.

Directions: Repeat Exercise P-1, using the method of intersection. p. 325. Although the four stations may be located with two set-ups, the work should be checked by setting up at a third station.

Questions: 1. Give practical suggestions concerning choice of stations; method of check lines. p. 325. 2. What are the advantages of this method, and in what kind of work is it especially useful? p. 326.

Exercise P-5.

Plane-table Survey of a Polygon.

(Method of Resection.)

Reference: Page 326.

Equipment: Same as for Exercise P-1.

Directions: Repeat Exercise P-1, using the method of resection. p. 326.

Questions: 1. What is the peculiar characteristic of this method? p. 326. 2. Give practical suggestions concerning the method of setting up; method of proceeding when there are more than four sides; method of check sights. 3. When is this method used? p. 327. 4. What are special cases of this method? p. 327.

Exercise P-6.

Discussion of Plane-table Surveying.

(Exercise for the Classroom.)

1. Compare the five methods used in plane-table surveying p. 327. 2. Give practical suggestions concerning selection of paper; method of carrying paper; fastening paper to board; protecting paper in case of rain; connecting different sheets when two or more are used. p. 327. 3. Give practical sug-

gestions for manipulation of the plane-table, including, turning it slowly; manipulating the alidade; disturbance of the board. p. 327. 4. Give practical suggestions for plotting, including, method of sharpening pencil; use of scale; drawing lines; locating several points on the same straight line; drawing lines close to a straight edge; keeping track of points and lines. p. 328. 5. Give general suggestions including use of colored glasses; rules for cleanliness; drawing a north and south meridian; the use of check sights. p. 328. 6. How are vertical angles measured, and in what kind of work are they most used? p. 328. 7. Discuss practical questions relating to field work, including, three suggestions for choice of scale; choice of stations; method of locating details; limits of error; sources of error. p. 328.

Exercise P-7.

Plane-table Practice in the Three-point Problem.

Reference: Pages 329–334.

Equipment: Plane-table and accessories, three sight poles, piece of tracing cloth or tracing paper.

Directions: 1. Choose three points, *A*, *B* and *C*, visible from a station *P* to be occupied by a plane-table. The points *a*, *b*, and *c* should be plotted to represent three visible points. 2. Find the point *p* corresponding to *P* by the mechanical solution on p. 329. 3. Check the work by the graphic solution (Bessel's method). p. 330. 4. Repeat the exercise by the trial method (Coast Survey method). p. 332.

Suggestions: In this exercise time may be saved if the three given points are plotted before going into the field. For this reason the polygon used in one of the plane-table exercises already given may be chosen for this work, and three of its corners transferred to a clean sheet of paper by pricking through. When the fourth corner has been determined by the three-point method, the map of the whole polygon may be compared with maps made by other methods. Of course, it should be pointed out that when the three-point problem occurs in practice the three points themselves are usually long distances apart.

Questions: 1. Explain the mechanical solution of the three-point problem. p. 329. 2. Comment on this method. p. 330. 3. Explain Bessel's method. p. 330. 4. What is the chief objection to Bessel's method? p. 330. 5. How may this diffibe overcome? p. 330. 6. On what principle is Bessel's ion based? p. 331. 7. Explain Llano's method. p. 331. xplain the Coast Survey method. p. 332. 9. Give rules guidance in Coast Survey method. p. 332. 10. Explain Two-point Problem. p. 334.

GROUP To.

EXERCISES IN TOPOGRAPHIC SURVEYING.

The exercises in this group afford practice in practically all of the methods for locating contours that are commonly used in topographic surveying.

Exercise To-1.

Running in a Contour.

References: Pages 337–341.

Equipment: Transit, leveling rod, ax, and stakes.

Directions: 1. Choose a place on a side hill where the surface is quite irregular; set up a transit and clamp the telescope so that the line of sight is horizontal. 2. Using the transit as a level, backsight on some near-by bench-mark, thus obtaining the elevation of the line of sight. 3. Setting the target at the proper grade rod, find points at intervals of about 25 feet on a contour whose elevation is an even multiple of 5 feet, marking each point with a stake.

Suggestion: In this exercise the elevation of the contour is immaterial, the object being to set a row of stakes 200 or 300 feet long that will show to a student how a given contour winds in and out along the surface of the ground (see also *Suggestion*, p. 337).

Questions: 1. Define contour; contour interval. p. 337. 2. What are some of the customary contour intervals? p. 337. 3. How can the imagination be helped in tracing a contour with the eye? p. 337. 4. What is a topographic map? What is its advantage over an ordinary map? p. 337. 5. How would the surface of a perfect cone be represented by contours? p. 338. 6. Give some of the fundamental principles concerning the following points: Contour lines crossing; contour lines merging; contour lines near together or far apart; line of steepest slope at any point; difference between closed contour lines indicating a hill and similar lines indicating a depression; continuity of contour lines; contour lines in pairs; a single contour line between two higher or two lower lines; contour lines across a stream. p. 338. 7. Why cannot a contour line turn down stream? p. 338.

8. Define ridge line; valley line. p. 339. 9. Where do the sharpest bends or curves in a contour line occur? p. 339. 10. When the convex side of the curve is toward lower ground, does it indicate a ridge, or a valley? p. 339. 11. What two general methods are there of locating contours? p. 340. 12. Explain the modified method. p. 341. 13. In the modified method, what should be the size of square? p. 341. 14. Give a system of numbering the corners of squares. p. 341.

Exercise To-2.

Topographic Survey of a Small Area. (Direct Method of Running in Contours with a Spirit Level.)

References: Pages 348, § 411 (a); 339, § 401; 341–348.

Equipment: Transit, level, leveling rod, drawing-board mounted on a tripod with accessories for plotting, including protractor, scale, and triangles.

Directions: Choose a place where the surface of the ground is quite irregular, and make a topographic survey of a small tract a few hundred feet square by the method explained in the first illustration, p. 348, § 411 (a).

Suggestions: 1. Each member of the party should follow the method of procedure for his position, outlined on p. 349, and before the survey is completed each should have had practice in all of the different positions. Read also *Remark*, p. 348. 2. After each member of the party has had practice in plotting notes in the field, it may be well to continue the survey without plotting the notes, using the combination method for field notes explained on p. 346.

Questions: 1. Give the general method of procedure for the levelman. p. 349. 2. As a rule, is it better to carry the work of leveling from station to station as the work progresses, or first to run a line of levels establishing bench-marks, and then to start anew from each station in running in contours? p. 349. 3. Give the method of procedure for the rodman. p. 349. 4. Give the method of checking a grade rod. p. 349. 5. How close should the line of sight come to the center of the target? p. 349. 6. Give the method of procedure for the transit man. p. 349. 7. *Give the method* of orienting the transit. 8. Give the method of procedure for the azimuth method. p. 156. 9. Is it usually necessary to read the vernier for either vertical or horizontal angles? p. 349, p. 109, § 152 (d). 10. When may vertical angles be ignored? p. 307. 11. What distances should be read twice? p. 349. 12. What lines should be checked with a needle? p. 349. 13. Give the method of procedure for the draftsman. p. 349. 14. Give two methods of plotting azimuths. p. 349. 15. Give different methods of reducing inclined stadia readings. pp. 480–483. 16. Give a method of keeping track of points. p. 349.

Exercise To–3.

Topographic Survey of a Small Area.

(Contours Interpolated by Spirit Leveling.)

References: Page 340, § 402 (b); p. 350, § 411 (b).

Equipment: Same as for the preceding exercise.

Directions: Make a topographic survey of a small area as in the preceding exercise, but use the method explained in the second illustration on p. 350.

Suggestions: 1. See suggestions for preceding exercise. 2. It may be well to cover exactly the same ground as in the preceding exercise, and to compare the map obtained by interpolating contours with that obtained in the preceding exercise by running in contours.

Exercise To–4.

Topographic Survey of a Small Area.

(Contours Interpolated by Means of the Vertical Angle Method.)

Reference: Page 350, § 411 (c).

Equipment: Transit, stadia rod or leveling rod, drawing-board mounted on tripod with accessories for plotting, including protractor, scale, and triangles.

Directions: Make a topographic survey of a small area as in the preceding exercise, but use the vertical angle and stadia for determining elevations instead of the spirit level, following the method of procedure outlined in the third illustration, p. 350.

Suggestions: See suggestions for the preceding exercise.

Questions: 1. Give the method of procedure for the transit-
ıan. p. 350. 2. How can spirit leveling be used in connection
ith this method? p. 350. 3. Give the method of procedure
or the rodman. p. 350. 4. Give the method of procedure for
he computer. p. 350. 5. Explain the use of the abridged
ethod of multiplication in reducing stadia readings. p. 481.
. Give the method of procedure for the draftsman. p. 350.
. Give precautions for keeping track of points. p. 350.

Exercise To-5.

Questions Pertaining to Topographic Surveying. (For Class-room Discussion.)

Questions: 1. Name the different kinds of work done in a
opographic survey. p. 339. 2. What is meant by horizontal
ontrol? p. 339. 3. What is meant by vertical control? p. 339.
:. Is the work of horizontal control always carried on simul-
aneously with that of vertical control? p. 339. 5. Give the
ifferent methods of establishing points of horizontal control.
). 340. 6. Give the different methods of establishing points of
ertical control. p. 340.

Questions Concerning Horizontal Control.

'. Method of establishing primary stations in an extensive sur-
ey? p. 341. 8. Method of establishing secondary stations?
). Method of tying the survey to a reference meridian? p. 341.
.0. Methods of locating details? p. 342. 11. General methods
f locating contours? p. 342. 12. For angular measurements,
s the azimuth or the direct angle method most used, and why?
). 342. 13. What three other methods of horizontal control are
requently used? p. 342. 14. What method is most useful for
inear measurements in a topographic survey? p. 342. 15.
Vhat precautions should be taken when the azimuth method is
sed? p. 342. 16. What precaution should be taken in estab-
ishing sub-stations? p. 342. 17. As a rule, is it necessary to
ead the vernier in locating contour points? Give an illustration
f the error involved in not reading the vernier. p. 343.

Questions Concerning Vertical Control.

18. Methods of determining elevations of primary stations? p. 343. 19. Methods of determining elevations of secondary stations? p. 343. 20. Methods of determining elevations of contour points? p. 343. 21. In reading vertical angles to contour points, is it necessary to read the vernier? Illustrate the error involved in not reading the vernier. p. 343.

General Questions of Field Work.

22. Give some considerations which govern the choice of stations for horizontal control: (a) for triangulation stations, p. 192, § 247; (b) for secondary stations, p. 149, § 216. 23. In general, from what stations are contours most easily controlled? p. 344. 24. What are some of the other places where stations should be located? p. 344. 25. Give some suggestions for choosing stations for vertical control. p. 344. 26. Give suggestions for choosing controlling points of contours. p. 344. 27. Give additional suggestions for choosing controlling points for contours when the method of interpolation is used. p. 344. 28. What considerations govern the choice of contour intervals? 29. Give some of the considerations which govern the choice of methods and of instruments. p. 345. 30. Give some of the common combinations of instruments and methods. p. 346.

Questions Concerning Field Notes.

31. Give two general methods of keeping field notes in topographic surveying. p. 346. 32. Explain the combination method of keeping field notes. p. 346. 33. Explain the method of plotting notes in the field. p. 347. 34. Give some suggestions for sketching topography. p. 347. 35. Give some practical suggestions for field notes concerning the following points (347): special form of note book; common mistake in recording; uses of drawing-board and protractor; keeping track of the points; effect of moisture on paper; choice of scale.

GROUP M.

RCISES IN DETERMINING A TRUE MERIDIAN.

xercises in this group afford practice in the determination of a true n both by observations on Polaris and by observations on the sun.

Exercise M-1.

mination of a Meridian by Observations on Polaris at Elongation.

rence: Chapter XXVIII, p. 354.

pment: Transit, lanterns, ax, stakes.

ctions: 1. Before the night of the observation, look up the f elongation of Polaris. 2. Set up over a stake and pro- explained in § 414, p. 356.

Notes: Keep a complete record of the work done, includ- ketch showing the position of all stations or stakes.

stions: **It is well to conduct this exercise in connection with some survey. In that case, on some day previous to the night of obser- set a number of stakes, one for each party, on one of the main transit the survey. The stakes should be at least twenty feet apart and a place that when the telescope is depressed after sighting at Polaris, sight may be had from each stake for at least 300 feet. If this is e true azimuth or the true bearing of the transit line may be com- he day following the observation by measuring the angle between e established at the time of the observation and the transit line (See sketch, p. 390.) The results thus obtained by different parties n be compared.**

tments of the transit should be tested previous to the observation. ll, however, to follow the modified method explained in § 414 (a), thus eliminating error due to adjustment. Each party should be take several pairs of observations, checking those which are taken an 10 minutes before or after elongation by the approximate formula 9.

tions concerning Polaris: 1. Is Polaris exactly at the ole? p. 354. 2. If any star were at the pole how would a eridian be determined? p. 354. 3. Why is Polaris chosen ervations? p. 354. 4. Describe a simple way of finding p. 355. 5. To what constellation does Polaris belong? 6. Define upper culmination and lower culmination. 7. Define eastern elongation and western elongation. p. 355.

8. What is the sidereal day? p. 355. 9. If Polaris reaches its eastern elongation (or any other point in its orbit) at 7.45 P.M. on one evening, at what time will it reach the same point on the next evening? p. 355. 10. Define polar distance. What is its approximate value and approximate rate of change per year? p. 355. 11. If an observer at the equator points the telescope of his transit at Polaris when at its eastern elongation, how far will the line of sight be east of the true north? p. 355. 12. Explain why as the observer moves north from the equator the angle between a line of sight to Polaris at elongation and the true meridian grows larger. p. 355. 13. Explain the difference between azimuth and polar distance. p. 355. 14. How can one tell at what vertical angle to set the telescope in order to bring Polaris into the field? p. 356. 15. When Polaris is at its upper or lower culmination, how can the meridian be obtained? p. 356. 16. What is an approximate method of determining when Polaris reaches its culmination? p. 356. 17. When Polaris is between elongation and culmination, how can its azimuth be determined?

Questions concerning the methods of observing Polaris: 18. Name three methods of observing Polaris. p. 356. 19. Give in order the steps which must be taken in observing Polaris at elongation. p. 356. 20. What two objections are there to taking only one observation of Polaris at elongation? p. 357. 21. Explain a modified method by which these objections may be overcome. p.357. 22. Explain how to calculate the time of elongation. p. 357. 23. Why is it necessary that the transit should be in adjustment and that special pains should be taken in leveling up? p. 357. 24. What is a common way of bringing Polaris into the field of the telescope? p. 357. 25. Give practical suggestions for focusing; for illuminating cross-hairs. p. 357. 26. Describe the movement of Polaris in respect to cross-hairs as the star approaches elongation. p. 357. 27. What precaution should be taken after sighting on a star before depressing the telescope? p. 358. 28. Give practical suggestions for setting a stake and establishing the point after depressing the telescope. p. 358. 29. Explain the use of the approximate formula for checking observations. p. 358.

Questions concerning other methods of observing Polaris: 30. Explain the method of observing at culmination. p. 358. 31. Explain the method of observing Polaris at any time. p. 358. 32. What are the advantages of observing Polaris at elongation?

p. 358. 33. What is the largest permissible error if this method is used? p. 358. 34. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the method at culmination; at any time? p. 358. 35. Explain how a true meridian may be determined roughly by means of a plumb-line. p. 358. 36. What error may be expected in this method? p. 358. 37. Explain the method of determining magnetic declination. p. 358. 38. Give practical suggestions concerning the declination arc; overcoming a lack of sensitiveness of the needle; determining the declination without staking out a north and south line.

Exercise M-2.

Determination of a Meridian by a Single Observation on the Sun.

References: Appendix, pp. 620–627.

Equipment: Transit, stakes, ax.

Directions: Set up at one end of a line the bearing of which is to be determined, and follow the directions given in Art. 603, pp. 624 and 625.

Field Notes: For form see Art. 603 (d), p. 627.

Suggestions: (Read also the practical suggestions on p. 625, noting particularly *suggestion* (3) as to leveling up, also *suggestion* (15), p. 88.) The transit should be in perfect adjustment; this is convenient but not altogether necessary if method of procedure is followed as outlined. Several sets of observations should be taken by each party, each set giving a different solar triangle to solve. Preliminary practice in pointing the telescope at the sun will be necessary; reduce the shadow of the telescope (thrown on a piece of paper) to a small circle, when the sun may be observed through the telescope, or its image seen as explained in the "practical suggestions," p. 625. The sun may be also approximately found by turning back the colored glass of the prismatic eyepiece (in transits so furnished) and revolving the telescope about each axis until a decided glare is refracted to the eye, which must be held some distance away. Be careful not to use either stadia hair by mistake. Be certain that the image of the sun seen through the prismatic eyepiece is the *true* image; a false image much smaller is sometimes visible in some transits. What causes it? Check the transit work as to horizontal angles at the close of each set of observations by turning back to the original sight.

Questions concerning the sun and its image: 1. What is the sun's apparent *diameter* July 1? Jan. 1? What causes this variation? p. 625. 2. Does this apparent diameter vary with the sun's altitude? 3. What is the refraction correction for bodies on the horizon? bodies at an altitude of 45°? bodies at the zenith, and why? p. 624. 4. Is the refraction correction additive or subtractive as applied to an observed altitude, and why? p. 623.

5. What determines the amount of this correction other than a body's altitude? p. 623. 6. Which appears to us larger, the sun or the moon?

Questions concerning field work: 7. What is the best time of day for observations by this method? p. 625. 8. Why invert the telescope before taking second observation? p. 625. 9. Why take the two observations within a few minutes? p. 625. 10. What are errors of eccentricity and how corrected? 11. How nearly should azimuths by this method be relied on? 12. What is the comparative accuracy of two observations made with equal care, one at 8 A.M. and one at 11? 13. How does the probable error of an azimuth obtained by a single observation on the sun compare with that of one from Polaris at elongation? 14. Give the method of procedure used when the transit has a prismatic eyepiece; when it has not.

Questions Concerning the Solution of the Astronomical Triangle for Azimuth: 15. Define *declination.* p. 621. 16. Draw the astronomical triangle for the sun in July (declination 20° north), for an observation about 9 A.M. in Latitude 40° north. 17. Draw it for the sun in December (declination 20° south), for an observation about 3 P.M. in Latitude 25° north. 18. When is the declination of the sun zero? 19. When does it change most rapidly and how much is the change per hour? When most slowly and how much per hour? p. 622. 20. Neglecting refraction, how high is the sun in the sky at noon on March 22 in Latitude 40° north? 21. Is the *time* used in the solution of the triangle? What is the object of recording it? What would be the effect on the solution of an error of five minutes in the recorder's watch? 22. Explain how the term *azimuth* is understood by astronomers; by surveyors. 23. Compare this difference with the difference between the beginning of the astronomical day and of the civil day. 24. Is it necessary to know the longitude with accuracy? the latitude? 25. If you knew neither longitude, latitude nor time precisely, could you use this method and secure accurate results?

Exercise M-3.

Determination of a Meridian with Solar Attachment.

References: Appendix, pp. 627–632.

Equipment: Transit with solar attachment, stakes, ax.

Note: The solar attachment may be either Burt (604 a) or Saegmuller (604 b). In case the transit is provided with another form it may be necessary to consult the maker's catalogue for some suggestions as to its use. The principle of the graphic solution of the spherical triangle (see Fig. 600) is common to all.

Directions: Determine the bearing of the line in question by setting up at some convenient point thereon and following the method of procedure outlined on pp. 630–632.

Field Notes: These should include latitude of place, apparent declination of sun, standard time of observation and true bearing obtained.

Suggestions: Read carefully Arts. 600–602, and 604, including the suggestions on p. 631. Many of the suggestions in Exercise M-2 apply to this exercise as well. Be sure to level up by the method of *suggestion* (15), p. 89. The best time of day for determination of a meridian by this method is from 8.30 to 9.30 A.M. or 2.30 to 3.30 P.M., as the sun's apparent altitude when small is correspondingly uncertain, while for two hours before or after noon its path is so slightly inclined to the horizon as to make an accurate determination by this method difficult. The transit should be in perfect adjustment throughout, *including the solar attachment.* For adjustments of the various forms of solar attachments see the manufacturers' catalogues. Great care must be used throughout, in the use of this method, not to disturb or jar any part of the instrument after it has been set in position. A seemingly insignificant disturbance may render the result so inaccurate as to be useless. It is difficult to adjust the colored glass without deranging some part of the instrument, — avoid the necessity for this where possible. It is advisable not to depend on a single determination of bearing by this method, — if possible take a number at various times during the day. Note that the declination change from 8 A.M. to 4 P.M. on a single day is about 8 minutes of arc in March and September, but is nearly zero at the solstices. Various handbooks issued by instrument makers give, with sufficient accuracy for the purpose, the sun's declination daily throughout the year, together with the refraction corrections for various latitudes. For a representation of the solar spherical triangle which the solar attachment solves graphically, see Fig. 600.

Questions: 1. Does the refraction correction vary with the declination only? 2. When is it greatest and when least in Latitude 40° north? 3. On what does it directly depend? 4. Is it additive in north or south declination? p. 631. Why? 5. Must a similar correction be applied to the latitude? 6. Draw the astronomical triangle for Latitude 45° north, assuming the time to be 3 P.M. on Nov. 5 (declination 15½° south). 7. What is the sun's apparent path for a single day, exactly? approximately? p. 628. 8. Define *declination, azimuth, hour circle.* Art. 600. 9. How does the local time enter into the problem? latitude? longitude? 10. Which must be known most accurately, and how large an error is permissible in each? 11. What will be the angle between the vertical planes of the two telescopes (Saegmuller) or of the solar attachment and the telescope (Burt) at the close of the operation? 12. How may it be measured in each case and what does it represent? 13. Article 604 (b) (2) mentions an index error in the vertical circle. How would this error affect the setting off of the declination? 14. Is the solar attachment applicable for use with a star? 15. What are the principal differences between the Burt and the Saegmuller solar attachments? p. 631. 16. Which would you prefer on a partly cloudy day? 17. Which is most accurate? 18. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the solar attachment method as compared with that of single solar altitudes? Compare their accuracy. 19. What should be the limit of error of the solar? How does either solar method compare with the Polaris method? 20. Plot the curve of declination of the sun for all or half the year. 21. What is the cause of the change? 22. Does it go through a complete cycle in a year of 365 days? 23. What other forms of solar attachments are in use beside the Burt and Saegmuller, and what are their distinctive features?

Note: If desired an exercise may be given in determining latitude by any one of the three methods explained on pages 632–633.

GROUP I.

A STUDY OF SURVEYING INSTRUMENTS.

The exercises in this group are intended for class-room discussions of the primary parts of surveying instruments and of each instrument as a whole. For the reasons given on page 537 it is well to postpone most of these discussions until after the student has become somewhat accustomed to the use of instruments. The discussion of any instrument will of course be of much greater value if one or more types of that instrument can be examined by the students during the discussion. Often it will be found desirable to take an instrument apart in order to show portions which are otherwise invisible.

Exercise I-1.

The Vernier, the Magnetic Needle and the Level Bubble.

References: Pages 538–545, §§ 565, 566 and 567.

Questions: 1. Who invented the vernier? p. 538. 2. Of what does a vernier consist? 3. What is meant by the " least count "? Illustrate by a sketch, or by constructing a rough vernier and scale of paper or cardboard. 4. What mark on a vernier usually serves as an indicator? p. 539. 5. What two steps are involved in any reading made by the aid of a vernier? 6. What is the sole use made of the vernier? *Remark,* p. 539. 7. Illustrate the method of reading a vernier either by a sketch or by means of a rough vernier such as that referred to in the second question. 8. What is the difference between a *direct* and a *retrograde* vernier? p. 540. Which form is the most common? When are retrograde verniers used and how are they read? 9. Give a general rule for determining the least count of a vernier; give a simpler rule. 10. By means of the figures on page 230 explain how to read a vernier on a leveling rod target, and point out the " danger points " where mistakes are likely to occur. 11. By means of the figures on pages 78 to 82 explain how to read verniers on transits and point out the " danger points." 12. Describe special forms of verniers such as a " folded " vernier. p. 83.

Questions on the Magnetic Needle: See *Questions* under *Exercise* Co-2, page 70 of this book.

Questions on the Level Bubble: See *Questions* under *Exercise L*-1 and *L*-5, pages 51 and 54 of this book.

Exercise I-2.

Theory of Lenses.

Reference: Page 545, § 568.

Questions: 1. What three forms of lenses are used most in telescopes? p. 545. Are they used singly or in combination? p. 546. 2. Of what shape is each surface of a double convex lens? 3. Define *optical center; principal focus; principal axis* and *focal length,* and illustrate by means of a sketch. 4. Upon what does the focal length depend? If the focal length does not depend upon the size of the lens, why is it usually greater for a large lens than for a small one? 5. Give the general proposition concerning a cone of rays emanating from a principal focus, and illustrate by a sketch. 6. How does this proposition apply to rays from the sun? p. 547. 7. Give the general proposition concerning a cone of rays emanating from any point beyond the principal focus. 8. Define *conjugate foci; secondary axis.* 9. From a principle of optics state the relation between the two distances from a lens to conjugate foci and the focal length of that lens. 10. Give the general proposition concerning a cone of rays emanating from any point at a distance from the lens *less* than the focal length. p. 548. 11. Define *virtual conjugate focus.* 12. How are images formed by a lens? 13. When is an image real and inverted and when virtual and erect? 14. What is the fundamental principle of the magnifying glass? 15 When is no image formed? 16. What is the fundamental principle upon which the object glass of a telescope is constructed? 17. How far from the lens of a camera should an object be placed to be photographed exact size? (Prove by equation (1), p. 547.) How far from the lens must the object be if the photograph is smaller than the object? Larger than the object? 18. To what is spherical aberration due? p. 549. To what is chromatic aberration due? 19. How can spherical aberration be corrected? How can chromatic aberration be corrected? 20. What is an *achromatic* lens?

Exercise I-3.

The Telescope.

Reference: Page 549, § 569.

Questions: 1. What is the function of the object glass of a telescope? p. 549. Of the eyepiece? 2. What is the difference between an inverting and a non-inverting telescope? Where does this difference lie? 3. Explain the construction of an eyepiece. How may it be centered? 4. Explain the construction of the objective. How is it moved in or out for focusing? 5. Explain the construction of the cross-hair ring, and method of attaching cross-hairs. 6. How may the reticle be drawn to one side or the other of the telescope tube? Why are the holes for the capstan screws left unthreaded? Why is it necessary to loosen one capstan screw before tightening the opposite screw? How may the whole ring be turned slightly? When is it necessary to turn it? 7. By means of a sketch, illustrate the theory of lenses applied to a non-erecting telescope, making clear what general proposition applies to the objective and what to the eyepiece. p. 550, § 569 (b). Explain the reason for the rule for focusing. 8. By means of a sketch, explain the difference between an erecting and a non-erecting eyepiece. 9. Compare these two types of eyepieces, giving the advantages and disadvantages of each. *Remark*, p. 553. 10. Name two special forms of telescopes. *Note*, p. 553. 11. What can you say regarding the terms " line of collimation " and " line of sight "? 12. Explain three defects which are inherent but should be corrected in telescopes. 13. Upon what does good " definition " depend? 14. What is " illumination " and upon what does it depend? What is the relation between illumination and magnifying power? 15. How does the " size of field " vary? 16. Upon what does " magnification " depend? Explain the relation between magnifying power and the size of the aperture; the relation between magnifying power and the level-bubble or the vernier. 17. Compare high power and low power telescopes, giving the advantages and disadvantages of each. p. 555. 18. For a given length of telescope why can the power be increased by using a non-erecting instead of an erecting eyepiece? 19. For a given power how is the height of standards affected by the use of a non-inverting eyepiece, and why is this an advantage? 20. How can a high and low power be obtained in the same telescope, and what are the advantages of such a telescope? *Remark*, p. 555. 21. What is "parallax," and how may it be eliminated? 22. Describe the tests for flatness of field. p. 556; for definition; for size of field; for size of aperture; for magnifying power. (These tests should be made by each student if circumstances permit.) 23. Summarize the principal points to be remembered in connection with the telescope as regards the objective, the eyepiece, the magnifying power, parallax, size of aperture, flatness of field and inherent defects.

Exercise I-4.

Chains and Tapes.

Reference: Page 559, § 570.

Questions: See page 6 of this book, questions 12, 14, 15 and 16, and page 9, questions 1, 4, 5 and 6. 1. Describe how a standard may be established for use in ordinary surveying. p. 562. 2. Describe a method for testing the length of a tape. p. 562.

Exercise I-5.

The Transit.

Reference: Page 563, § 571.

Questions: 1. What are the three principal parts of a transit? p. 563. 2. Explain how either the upper or lower plate can be revolved without turning the other, or how both can be revolved together. 3. Explain the construction of the inner and outer spindles. 4. Explain the workings of the different parts of a transit when a horizontal angle is measured. 5. What are the common methods of numbering the graduations on the limb? p. 67. 6. Explain how the various set-screws and tangent-screws work. p. 564. 7. If a transit is in perfect adjustment and is properly set up, why is it impossible to measure with it any angle which is not a horizontal or a vertical angle? *Remark*, p. 566. 8. What are some of the special attachments for the transit and their uses? 9. Name some of the most important requirements for transits as regards the spindles. p. 567; the limb graduations; *opposite* verniers; provision for reading vernier accurately; *relation* between magnifying power of telescope and least count of vernier; between magnifying power and sensitiveness of level-bubble; clamps and screws; tripod. 10. Name five additional requirements which may be met by adjustments. p. 568. 11. Give the test for eccentricity.

Exercise I-6.

The Level.

Reference: Page 569, § 572.

Questions: 1. What are the most essential qualities in telescopes for levels? p. 569. 2. What is the lower limit for magnifying power? 3. Why can the magnifying power of a telescope for a level be greater than that for a transit telescope and still be consistent with the sensitiveness of the level bubble? 4. Why is the upper limit for magnifying power placed at from 36 to 40 diameters on ordinary levels? 5. What are the ordinary limits for sensitiveness? 6. Upon what does stability depend? 7. What are the two distinguishing characteristics of a wye-level? What is the object of this construction? 8. Explain the construction of a dumpy level. What are its advantages and disadvantages? 9. Name some special forms of levels. 10. Describe some forms of home-made levels. *Note*, p. 571. 11. Describe some of the tests for the level not made in the ordinary adjustments.

Exercise I-7.

Leveling-rods and Stadia Rods.

References: Pages 571 to 575, §§ 573 and 574.

Questions on Leveling-Rods: 1. What is the difference between a *target* rod and a *self-reading* or *speaking* rod? p. 571. 2. Which is the better for ordinary leveling? 3. What is the difference between a *New York* rod and a *Philadelphia* rod? 4. What two common types of target are most used? p. 572. 5. What is the difference between a target with a scale and one with a vernier? pp. 228–230. 6. What is an *angle* target? How does it help in "plumbing" the rod? 7. Describe some special forms of leveling-rods. 8. Describe an *automatic* leveling-rod. 9. Describe a *plumbing-level.* p. 573. 10. What two tests should a good leveling-rod meet? p. 232.

Questions on Stadia Rods: 11. Describe the target stadia rod. p. 573. Is it often used in practice? 12. Give some of the requirements which should be met by a good stadia rod. Compare the forms shown on page 574, giving the advantages and disadvantages of each. 13. Give some suggestions for making stadia rods. p. 574.

Exercise I-8.

The Compass, the Plane Table and the Sextant.

References: Page 575, § 575.

Questions on the Compass: See page 70 of this book, *Questions* 13 to 21.

Questions on the Plane Table: See page 79 of this book, *Questions* 1 to 4.

Questions on the Sextant: 1. What is the distinguishing characteristic of the sextant? p. 577. 2. What advantage has it over other instruments used for measuring angles? p. 578. 3. In what kinds of work is the sextant most used? 4. Explain the method of using the sextant in measuring horizontal angles. 5. Give some practical suggestions for the use of the sextant. p. 579. 6. How are vertical angles measured? 7. By means of a diagram, explain the theory of the sextant. p. 579.

Note: In connection with this exercise practice should be given in measuring both horizontal and vertical angles with the sextant. Problems similar to that on page 137, § 197, may be assigned by the instructor.

Exercise I-9.

The Care of Instruments.

Reference: Chapter XLVII, p. 607.

Questions: 1. What are some of the things to avoid in using instruments? p. 607. 2. What are some of the precautions which should be taken? p. 608. 3. Give suggestions for the care of steel tapes. p. 609. 4. Give suggestions for riveting a tape. 5. Give suggestions for soldering a broken tape. p. 610. 6. Give suggestions for emergency repairs to a tape by a splice. p. 611; by rough riveting. 7. What kind of lubricants are used for instruments? Which is the best? 8. How may screws and screw-holes be cleaned? p. 612. 9. How may graduated arcs be cleaned? 10. How may bubble tubes be replaced? p. 613. 11. Give suggestions for the care of lenses. p. 614; of focusing slides. 12. Explain in detail the method of replacing broken cross-hairs. p. 616. 13. How may dust be removed from cross-hairs? 14. Give suggestions for the care of tripods. 15. Give suggestions for the care of centers, spindles and centers.

Note: It is well to give the student an opportunity to make some of the repairs suggested by the above questions. Especially should he have an opportunity to replace cross-hairs and to mend a broken tape.

GROUP A.

ADJUSTMENTS.

The exercises in this group afford practice in the adjustments of all of the surveying instruments in common use. As pointed out in the introductory note to Chapter XLVI, page 581, the student should understand clearly the *reason* for each step of an adjustment, otherwise the exercises will be of little value.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS FOR EXERCISES A-1 TO A-7.

Each student should work at each adjustment until it is satisfactorily completed. It is suggested that in large classes men working on the same adjustment should be under the close supervision of an instructor, and that a general discussion of each adjustment of an instrument be held before beginning the next adjustment of that instrument. When there are a number of adjustments, as in the case of the transit, this breaking of the continuity of the work may give to students the false impression that the process is a long and difficult one. For this reason when all of the adjustments of an instrument have been completed by the students, it is well for the instructor to adjust the same instrument as rapidly as possible in the presence of the entire squad, emphasizing the logical order of the adjustments and showing how one may affect another.

It is presupposed that the discussions in Group I, pages 95–101, have been held before beginning adjustments, and that a thorough study of the different parts of instruments has been made. Of special importance are the questions on the construction of the telescope and the control of the cross-hair ring in *Exercise I*-3, p. 97 of this book; also questions on the construction of the transit and of the level, *Exercises I*-5 and *I*-6.

Exercise A-1.

Preliminary Discussion of Adjustments.

References: Pages 581 to 583.

Questions: 1. Why are certain of the parts of an instrument made adjustable? p. 581. 2. Can accurate work be done with an instrument out of adjustment? Can all errors be eliminated *without* adjusting the instrument? 3. How long may a good instrument stay in adjustment? How often should it be tested? 4. What are the two steps in each adjustment of any instrument? 5. What precaution should be taken to avoid wear on holes in capstan screws and nuts? p. 582. 6. Should each adjustment be perfected before beginning the next? What should be the final step? 7. In making any one adjustment how many times should the test and correction be repeated? How may time be saved? 8. What precautions may be taken to cause an instrument to "hold" its adjustments? 9. Give suggestions for working the capstan screws of a cross-hair ring. 10. Which cross-hair should be adjusted first. 11. Define *line of sight; line of collimation.* 12. If after adjustment the intersection of the cross-hairs appears to be out of the center of the field of vision what is generally the trouble? 13. How is parallax eliminated? p. 555. 14. Why is it well to set up an instrument in the shade during adjustments? 15. By means of a sketch, explain with care the *method of reversion.* 16. Show how this principle is involved in the adjustment of a home-made A-level explained in the note on page 571.

Note: Since the method of reversion is the basis of every adjustment, it should be discussed carefully and understood thoroughly before any attempt is made to adjust an instrument.

Exercise A-2.

Adjustments of the Transit.

Reference: Pages 581–591.

Equipment: Transit, steel tape, leveling-rod, sight pole, adjusting-pins, ax and stakes.

Directions: 1. Set up the transit, selecting if possible a level place where 300-ft. sights backward and forward in a straight line may be taken, and where the telescope can be directed to some well-defined high point. 2. Perform, in turn, each of the five principal adjustments of the transit by the methods explained on pages 581–591, paying particular attention to the reason for each step. (See also *General Directions* on page 102 of this book.)

General Questions on the Adjustment of a Transit: 1. What are the five principal lines of a transit? p. 584. (Illustrate with a transit.) 2. Is it as important that the plate levels should be in perfect adjustment when using the transit in level country as when using it in hilly country? 3. When is it important that the line of sight should move in a vertical plane (second and third adjustments)? 4. What kind of work requires that the telescope level should be in adjustment? 5. Why is it not essential in measuring vertical angles that the vertical circle should be in adjustment? *Caution*, p. 98.

Questions on the Adjustment of the Plate Levels: (To be discussed before the second adjustment is begun.) 6. What is the object of this adjustment? p. 584. 7. Describe the test. p. 585. 8. Explain the method of correction and state the principle involved. 9. When the final test is satisfactory how can *non*-parallelism in the axes of the inner and outer spindle be detected? *Suggestions*, p. 585. 10. Why is it best to adjust the plate levels with the lower plate clamped and the upper plate unclamped? 11. How can you tell in which direction to turn a capstan screw? p. 586.

Questions on the Adjustment of the Cross-hairs: (To be discussed before the third adjustment is begun.) 12. Why is the horizontal hair adjusted first? p. 582? (7). 13. What preliminary step may be taken? *Note*, p. 586. 14. What kind of work is affected by the adjustment of the horizontal hair? 15. What is the object in the adjustment of the horizontal hair? 16. The test? 17. Method of correction? 18. Is it necessary that the telescope should be horizontal during the adjustment of the horizontal hair? 19. Why should one point sighted at be near the transit, the other far away? 20. Give practical suggestions for the adjustment of the horizontal hair. p. 587. 21. When the horizontal hair is moved up or down is the vertical hair moved? *Note*, p. 550. 22. Suppose that in a telescope in which the eyepiece is erecting the horizontal hair should apparently be moved downward, which capstan screw is loosened and which tightened? p. 587. 23. What kind of work is affected by the adjustment of the vertical hair? p. 586. 24. What is the object in the adjustment of the vertical hair? p. 587. 25. The test? 26. The method of correction? 27. Why measure only one quarter of the distance between the two points? (Explain by diagram.) 28. Suppose the vertical hair is apparently to the right of the third point, which screw should be loosened and which tightened if the eyepiece is erecting? p. 589, (6). 29. Give some practical suggestions for adjusting the vertical cross-hair. 30. Suppose that after the cross-hairs have been adjusted the eyepiece is taken out or disturbed in any way, would this affect t adjustment of the hairs? p. 589.

Questions on the Adjustment of the Standards: 31. What kind of transit work is affected by this adjustment? p. 584. 32. What is the object of this adjustment? p. 589. 33. The test? 34. Method of correction? 35. Principle involved? 36. If the second point obtained in the test falls to the right of the first, which end of the supporting axis is the higher? 37. Give some practical suggestions for adjusting the standards. p. 591.

Questions on the Adjustment of the Telescope Level: 38. What is the object of this adjustment? p. 591. 39. When is it necessary to pay particular attention to this adjustment? p. 591. 40. What other instrument is always adjusted by the "peg method"? p. 601, I. 41. Explain by means of a diagram the test and the method of correction. (See also questions in connection with "peg" adjustment, p. 107 of this book.)

Questions on the Adjustment of the Vertical Circle: 42. What is the object of this adjustment? p. 591. 43. The test? 44. Method of correction?

Questions on Centering the Eyepiece and the Object-glass Slide: 45. If the intersection of the cross-hairs is obviously out of the center of the field of view does this necessarily indicate that the instrument is out of adjustment? p. 601. Does it affect the accuracy of the work? 46. Explain how to center the eyepiece. 47. How do the screws which move the centering ring differ in different instruments? p. 602. 48. Why does not the centering of the eyepiece affect other adjustments? 49. Why is no provision made for centering a non-erecting eyepiece? 50. What can you say regarding the centering of the object-glass slide? Explain the method.

Note: It is well to give the student an opportunity to actually center an eyepiece, either in connection with this exercise or during the adjustment of the level.

Exercise A-3.

Adjustments of the Wye-Level.

Reference: Pages 592–600.

Equipment: Level, one or preferably two leveling-rods, steel tape, adjusting-pins, ax and stakes.

Directions: 1. Set up the level in a shady place where a 300-ft. sight may be taken over approximately level ground. 2. Perform in turn each of the three principal adjustments of a wye-level by the methods explained on pages 592 to 600. (See also *General Directions* on page 102 of this book.) 3. All three adjustments having been completed apply the "peg method" test.

General Questions on the Adjustment of a Wye-Level: 1. What are the seven principal lines of a wye-level? p. 592. (Illustrate with a level.) 2. What is the object of the principal adjustments? 3. How is the line of sight made to coincide with the axis of the collars? 4. How is the axis of the bubble made parallel to the axis of the level-bar? p. 593.

Questions on the Adjustment of the Cross-hairs: (To be discussed before the second adjustment is begun.) 5. What is the object of this adjustment? 6. Describe the test. 7. Explain the method of correction and state the principle involved. 8. Is it necessary to level up for this adjustment? *Suggestions*, p. 594. 9. Give suggestions for working the capstan screws. 10. If there are two sets of capstan screws which set is used? 11. How may the horizontal hair be tested to ascertain if it is truly horizontal? If it is not, how is the correction made? 12. What defects in construction may be revealed by focusing on a point near the instrument and repeating the test?

Questions on the Adjustment of the Bubble Tube: (To be discussed before the third adjustment is begun.) 13. What is the object of the first step? p. 594. 14. Describe the test. 15. Explain the method of correction and the principle involved. 16. Is this first step an important one? *Practical suggestions*, p. 595. 17. If the tube is conical how will the bubble move during the test? Can this be remedied? 18. Why put on the sunshade? 19. What is the object of the second step in the adjustment of the bubble tube? p. 595. 20. Describe the test. 21. Explain the method of correction and the principle involved. 22. What precaution should be taken in turning the telescope end for end? *Practical suggestions*, p. 596. 23. Give suggestions for working capstan nuts. 24. Could this adjustment be made independent of the wyes? 25. Explain under what conditions this method of adjustment fails.

Questions on the Adjustment of the Wyes: 26. What is the object of this adjustment? 27. Describe the test. 28. Explain the method of correction and the principle involved. 29. Explain why undue importance is often attached to this adjustment. *Practical suggestions*, p. 597. 30. Why is it well to make alternate tests over different pairs of leveling screws? 31. Give suggestions for working capstan nuts. 32. When unable to perfect the adjustment where should one look for the trouble? 33. Why should the "peg-method" test be made? *Remark*, p. 597. When may this test be omitted?

Note: For questions on the "peg adjustment" see the next exercise. See p. 105 of this book for questions on centering the eyepiece.

Exercise A-4.

Adjustments of the Dumpy Level.

References: Pages 597 to 601.

Equipment: Dumpy level, two leveling-rods, steel tape, adjusting-pins, ax and stakes.

Directions: 1. Set up the level in a shady place where 200-ft. sights may be taken in opposite directions over approximately level ground. 2. Perform in turn each of the two adjustments, using the first "peg method" for the first adjustment. 3. When the adjustments have been completed apply the second "peg method." (See also *Practical suggestions*, p. 599.)

Questions on the "Peg Adjustment:" (To be discussed either just before or just after the first adjustment of the dumpy level.) 1. What is the object of this adjustment? p. 597. 2. By means of a figure, explain the test used in the first "peg method," and derive an expression for the error. p. 598. 3. What two methods of correction are there? Explain the first method; the second. 4. If the line of sight is inclined downward is the error added or subtracted? *Practical suggestions*, p. 599. 5. Give suggestions for choosing positions of pegs. 6. Why should more than one pair of readings be taken at the first set-up? 7. After the final adjustment of the target why should the rod be held at the stake nearer the level? 8. What defects of a wye-level may be disclosed by the "peg-method" test? How may they be remedied? 9. In applying the peg adjustment to a transit or a wye-level is it better to adjust the cross-hairs or the bubble tube? 10. By means of a figure, explain the test for the second "peg method." p. 600. 11. Explain the method of correction and the principle involved. 12. Explain a modified method of the peg adjustment. p. 600.

Questions on the Adjustments of the Dumpy Level. 13. What are the principal lines of the dumpy level? p. 600. 14. What is the object of the first adjustment? p. 601. 15. What is the test and correction? 16. As a rule is it better to adjust the cross-hairs or the bubble tube? Why? 17. Why do some engineers prefer a dumpy level with a non-adjustable bubble tube? 18. What is the object of the second adjustment? 19. What is the test and correction? 20. Explain how to adjust a dumpy level on which no provision has been made for raising or lowering the standards.

Note: See p. 105 of this book for questions on centering the eyepiece.

Exercise A-5.

Adjustments of the Compass.

Reference: Pages 602–603.

Equipment: Compass, adjusting-pins, plumb-bob and string, fine file, pliers or small brass wrench.

Directions: Make the tests for each of the four adjustments of the compass. For obvious reasons it will usually be impracticable in class work to make the corrections in the last three adjustments.

Questions: 1. What is the object in the adjustment of the levels? p. 602. Give the test and the method of correction. 2. What is the object in the adjustment of the sights? Explain the test and method of correction. 3. What is the object in the adjustment of the needle? p. 603. Explain the test and the method of correction. Give some practical suggestions for this adjustment. 4. What is the object in the adjustment of the pivot point? Explain the test and the method of correction. 5. Explain other tests for the compass. p. 576. 6. How may the needle be balanced? p. 612; how may it be remagnetized?

Exercise A-6.

Adjustments of the Plane Table.

Reference: Pages 603–604.

Equipment: Plane table and accessories, adjusting-pins, leveling-rod, steel tape, ax and stakes.

Directions: Make in turn each of the five adjustments of the plane table.

Questions: 1. Explain the adjustment of the levels. p. 604. 2. Explain the adjustment of the board. 3. Explain the adjustment of the telescope. 4. How may the line of sight and the edge of the ruler be made to lie either in the same vertical plane or in parallel planes? Is this essential? *Remark,* p. 604. 5. Explain the adjustment of the telescope level. 6. Explain the adjustment of the vertical circle. 7. Explain other tests for the plane table. p. 577.

Exercise A-7.

Adjustments of the Sextant.

Reference: Pages 604–606.

Equipment: Sextant, two blocks of wood or other objects of equal height, screw-driver.

Directions: Make in turn each of the four adjustments of the sextant.

Questions: 1. Explain the adjustment of the index-glass. p. 604. 2. Explain the adjustment of the horizon-glass. p. 605. Give some practical suggestions for this adjustment. 3. Explain the adjustment of the telescope. Give suggestions. 4. Explain the method of determining the index-error. p. 606. Give suggestions.

PART II.

EXERCISES IN OFFICE WORK.

Introductory.

THE first seven groups of exercises in Part II are problems in office computation, while the remaining exercises are devoted to plotting and mapping. In each of these two kinds of work exercises are arranged in a progressive order, but it is intended that problems should be given alternately, first in one and then in the other, so that the student may have practice both in computing and in plotting from the beginning of the course. There is a decided advantage in thus carrying on the two kinds of work side by side.

It is suggested that a separate-leaf notebook about 8 x 10½ inches be used for all computations. Each problem should be numbered to correspond to the number in this book, and dated. It is well at the top of each page to insert a heading which will show at a glance the nature of the problems on that page. *After problems have been checked they should be reinserted in the notebook, carefully arranged in order for future reference.* As problems in one exercise frequently involve work already done in a previous exercise, this arrangement is important.

Throughout the course, checking computations should be considered just as much a part of the work as making the computations in the first place. (See p. 362, § 420.) Much valuable training will be lost, moreover, if the student does not constantly strive to acquire the systematic methods of procedure which help so much in avoiding mistakes as well as in saving time. (See p. 363, § 421.)

All page references in Part II marked with an asterisk (as for example, p. 112 *) refer to pages in this book. All other page references are to pages in the author's text-book on *Plane Surveying*.

Since instructors may desire to insert additional problems, the numbering of problems is not continuous, intervals being left at the end of nearly every set.

GROUP G.

GENERAL METHODS OF COMPUTATION.

The aim in this group of exercises is to afford practice in the general methods of computation used in office work.

Exercise G–1.

Short Cuts in Arithmetical Work.

References: Pages 362 to 377.

Problems: 1. Explain how to multiply mentally 42 by 36, p. 364, § 424 (a). 2. Reduce 38 cubic yards to cubic feet mentally, p. 364. 3. Multiply 4821 by 819, p. 364, § 424 (b). 4. Divide 562981 by 72, p. 365, § 424 (c). 5. Multiply 589432 by 43416, carrying the result accurately to five places, p. 365, § 424 (d). 6. Multiply 589432 by 43416, using the usual method of long multiplication, and check the result by casting out nines, p. 366, § 424 (h). 7. Divide 58.264362 by 5.2314, carrying the result to four places (i.e., two decimal places), p. 366, § 424 (g). 8. Divide 58.264362 by 5.2314 by the ordinary method of long division and check the result by casting out nines, p. 367, § 424 (i). 9. Explain how to square mentally 44, 55, 7½, 7¼, p. 367, § 424 (j). 10. Find mentally the square root of 73 to two decimal places, p. 368, § 424 (k). 11. Extract the square root of 78620 by the approximate method, p. 368, § 424 (l). 12. Explain the method of checking by "Second Differences," p. 368. 13. Check the result of problems 6 above by excess of 11's, p. 369.

Questions: 1. Explain by illustrations different from those given in the book at least four general methods of checking computations, p. 362. 2. Name some of the approximate checks to be used in office work, p. 363. 3. Give some suggestions for saving time in office work, p. 364. 4. What is the main object in grouping like operations in addition to saving time? p. 364, § 423.

Exercise G-2.

Consistent Accuracy in Computations.

Reference: Page 369, § 425.

Note: The student should study § 425 with great care before working the problems. The importance of this exercise can hardly be overestimated. There is probably no one thing in office work so costly in time and money as the carrying of computations to an unnecessary and unwarranted number of figures. The student will be well repaid for all the study he may put upon this subject.

PROBLEMS.

14. A lot is 724.3 feet by 64.6 feet. Compute its area to as many places as the data will permit. (See illustration I, p. 373.)

15. Same as problem 14 except the lot is 724.35 feet by 64.62 feet. (See illustration II, p. 373.)

16. The radius of a circle is 2.167. Find the length of its circumference to as many places as the data will permit. (See illustration III, p. 373.)

17. The base of a triangle is given as 34.532 and the adjacent angle as 27° 27′. If the triangle is right-angled, what is the length of the perpendicular side? (See illustration IV, p. 373.)

18. Same as problem 17 except the angle to the nearest 10″ is 27° 27′. (See illustration V, p. 373.)

19. Same as problem 17 except that the base is given as 34.5 feet. (See illustration VI, p. 373.)

20. The length of a line is given by the lengths of four segments as follows: $AB = 354$ feet, $BC = 3521$ feet, $CD = 21.69$ feet, $DE = 1.432$ feet. What is the total length of the line AE expressed to as many places as the data warrant?

21. The circumference of a circle is given as 21.6 feet. Express its radius to as many places as the above length of the circumference will permit.

22. The perpendicular side of a right-angled triangle is given as 4368 feet and the base as 4800 feet. If the latter measurement was taken to the nearest 100 feet, express the tangent of the angle to as many places as the data will permit.

Questions: 1. It is stated that 25 men surveyed a line 25 miles long. What is the essential difference between the number 25 as applied to men and as applied to miles? 2. How many certain figures in the first "25"; in the second "25"? 3. Explain why consistent accuracy is not gained by carrying all numbers to the same number of decimal places, p. 370, § 425 (a). 4. What must one know in order to determine how many certain figures there are in numbers ending with ciphers, as, for example, the number 4000? p. 370, § 425 (b). 5. How many certain figures are contained in the number 0.0051, p. 370? 6. Illustrate the effect of uncertain figures in addition and multiplication, p. 371. 7. Give the general method of multiplication, p. 372, § 425 (g). 8. Give general suggestions for retaining and dropping figures in computations, p. 372.

Exercise G–3.

Trigonometric Relations Between the Sides of a Right-Angled Triangle.

Reference: Page 640.

Note: The trigonometric relations between the sides of a right-angled triangle are most easily remembered by keeping in mind the fact that to obtain a side of a triangle a trigonometric function is always multiplied by the *radius* of a circle. The purpose of this exercise is to review the trigonometric methods of solving right triangles.

Directions: 1. Draw carefully with drawing instruments a right-angled triangle *ABC*, whose base *AB* is 8.62 inches and whose perpendicular side *BC* is 6.24 inches (use the side of the scale divided to 50ths of an inch). 2. Draw the arc of a circle, beginning at *B* with *A* as a center (radius *AB*) corresponding to the first quadrant in trigonometry. 3. From this figure *BC* is evidently tangent to the circle, and the radius of the circle is *AB*; hence, *AB* multiplied by the tangent of *CAB* will give the length of *BC*; or, what is the same thing, *BC* divided by *AB* (the radius) gives the tangent of *CAB*. Likewise, *AB* multiplied by the secant of *CAB* will give the length of *AC*.

Problem 23: 1. Find the natural tangent of *CAB* in the above triangle to as many decimal places as the data will warrant. 2. Look up in the table of natural tangents the corresponding value of CAB. 3. Find the length of AC by multiplying AB by the secant of CAB, or, what is the same thing, by dividing AB by the cosine of CAB. 4. Check the length of AC by squaring AB and BC, using the table of squares, p. 683; also by scaling the length of AC on the drawing.

Directions: Draw the same triangle ABC, but with A as a center and AC as a radius draw an arc corresponding to the first quadrant. Functions will now be multiplied by AC (the radius) instead of AB, the triangle lying wholly within the quadrant.

$$AC \text{ sin. } CAB = BC$$
$$AC \text{ cos. } CAB = AB$$

Problem 24: Using the values of AC and of CAB found in the preceding problem, find the lengths of CB and AB by the above formulas to as many places as the data will warrant.

Note: The student will observe that when a triangle lies wholly within the quadrant (i.e., its hypothenuse is the radius of the arc) the sine and cosine are the functions used, whereas, if it extends outside of the quadrant (i.e., the base is the radius) the tangent, cotangent, secant and cosecant are used. When, as in many books, tables of secants are omitted, the reciprocal of the cosine may be used instead.

Exercise G–4.

Use of Logarithms.

References: Pages 374 to 376, pages 650 and 718.

Directions: 1. Before beginning this exercise go through the tables, p. 719 to p. 763, drawing indices or arrows at each of the four corners of every page as indicated on p. 375. 2. On a narrow strip of cardboard print two sets of headings to fit the tables as suggested in § 426 (4), p. 375.

Problem 25: 1. Given a triangle ABC right-angled at B. $AB = 24' \, 7\tfrac{1}{4}''$; $BC = 16' \, 4\tfrac{9}{32}''$. Reduce the given lengths to feet and decimals of a foot. (Use table on p. 650.) 2. Find the natural tangent of the angle CAB. 3. Find the corresponding value of the angle CAB. (Table XV.) 4. Find the logarithm of the natural tangent obtained above in (2). (Table XVII.) 5. Look up in the logarithmic tables (XVIII) the logarithmic tangent corresponding to the angle found in (3), and compare this logarithm with the logarithm found in (4).

Problem 26: Find the logarithms for the following quantities:

1. log. cos. 98° 12′
2. log. tan. 155° 13′
3. log. sin. 168° 12′
4. log. cot. 109° 43′
5. log. cos. 109° 12′ 20″
6. log. tan. 21° 33′ 44″
7. log. sin. 123° 14′ 32″
8. log. cot. 164° 12′ 18″

Problem 27: Find the angles corresponding to the following ogarithms:*

1. log. $\overset{-}{\text{cos}}$. A = 9.918147
2. log. $\overset{-}{\text{tan}}$. B = 10.888449
3. log. $\overset{+}{\text{cot}}$. C = 9.060016
4. log. $\overset{+}{\text{sin}}$. D = 9.987186
5. log. $\overset{-}{\text{cos}}$. E = 9.378321
6. log. $\overset{+}{\text{tan}}$. F = 10.654632
7. log. $\overset{+}{\text{cot}}$. G = 9.685417
8. log. $\overset{+}{\text{sin}}$. H = 9.956666

Questions: 1. How may time be saved in logarithmic computations? p. 374, § 426 (1). 2. Give some suggestions for avoiding mistakes especially in interpolating, § 426 (2). What are some of the mistakes likely to be made when an angle is more than 90°? § 426 (3). 4. When several methods of computation may be used in finding angle or a side of a triangle, when would you use tangent and cotangents, and when sines and cosines? p. 376.

Logarithmic functions of angles near 0° *and* 90°. See p. 718.

Problem 28: Find by the method explained on p. 718 the logarithms of:

1. log. sin. 0° 43′ 45″
2. log. tan. 0° 38′ 15″
3. log. cot. 0° 59′ 14″
4. log. cos. 89° 02′ 25″

Find the angles corresponding to the following logarithms:

5. log. sin. A = 8.174231
6. log. tan. A = 8.235489
7. log. cot. A = 11.984362
8. log. cos. A = 8.060753

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* In problem 27 the angle should be expressed to the nearest second. 'e careful to observe the algebraic sign given for each function.

GROUP B.

CALCULATION OF BEARINGS.

Exercise B-1.

Calculation of Bearings from Angles.

Reference: Before beginning this exercise students should study with great care the whole of Chapter XXX, beginning on page 378. First learn to convert angular distance into bearing and *vice versa*, as explained in § 432, especially in the note at the top of page 379. Work all the examples at the top of page 381 before trying to apply the method to a system of transit lines as explained in § 434.

Directions: Follow the form of computations given at the top of page 382 and apply by inspection the check of § 433 (e).

Problem 29: 1. Calculate the bearings of the transit lines *BC*, *CD*, and *DA*, p. 179, assuming *AB* to be N. 88° 15′ E.

30. Same as problem 29, assuming the bearing of *AB* to be N. 88° 15′ W. instead of N. 88° 15′ E.

Questions: 1. Give the algebraic signs of bearings and angles. 2. What is meant by angular distance? 3. Explain the general method of converting angular distance into bearing; of bearing into angular distance. 4. Give the general method of calculating bearings, p. 379. 5. Explain the reason which underlies the check of § 433 (e).

ADDITIONAL PROBLEMS.

Angles to the right. Calculate the bearings of the lines:

31. In the figure on p. 183, assuming *DA* to be N. 80° 30′ E.

32. In the figure *QRSTY*, p. 390, assuming *QR* to be N. 43° 10′ W.

33. In the figure *QRSTUVWNOPQ*, p. 390, assuming *QR* *S. 36° 12′* W.

Angles to the left. Calculate the bearings of the lines:

34. In the figure on p. 183, using the same values as in problem 31 above, but going from D to C to B to A (counter-clockwise).

35. Same as problem 32, but go from Q to Y to T to S to R (counter-clockwise).

Angles to the right or to the left. Calculate the bearings of the lines: AB, BC, CD, DE, EF, FG, GH, HI, and IK. Clockwise = +; counter-clockwise = −. Use the values of the angles given below.

36. Line AB = N. 70° E.; ABC = 199° +; BCD = 101° +; CDE = 71° −; DEF = 74° +; EFG = 98° −; FGH = 263° −; GHI = 82° +; HIK = 300° +.

37. Same as problem 36 except assume the bearing of AB N. 70° W. instead of N. 70° E.

38. Same as problem 36 except start with the line EF, assuming its bearing to be N. 5° E.

39. Same as problem 38 except assume bearing of EF to be S. 5° E.

40. Line AB = S. 80° E.; ABC = 100° 10′ +; BCD = 265° 23′ −; CDE = 86° 12′ −; DEF = 243° 47′ +; EFG = 168° 13′ +; FGH = 58° 34′ −; GHI = 38° 21′ +.

41. Same as problem 40 except start with EF whose bearing may be assumed EF = N. 70° E.

42. Same as problem 41 except assume bearing of EF = N. 70° W.

Deflection angles. Calculate bearings from the following deflection angles by the method referred to on p. 382, § 434 (b).

43. Line AB = N. 84° E.; B = 36° R., C = 43° L., D = 15° L., E = 52° R., F = 87° L., G = 21° R., H = 49° R., I = 17° L. Check the bearing of IJ by the method outlined at the bottom of p. 155.

44. Same as problem 43 except the bearing of AB is N. 84° W

45. Same as problem 43 except bearing of AB is S. 8° W.

46. Same as problem 43 except bearing of AB is S. 12° E.

Exercise B-2.

Changing the Bearings of All Lines of a Traverse by a Given Amount.

Reference: Page 382, § 434 (c).

Problem 47: 1. Assuming the bearing of QR on p. 392 to be S. 44° 26′ E., change the bearings of RS, ST, TY, and YQ to correspond.

48. Assuming the bearing of QY on p. 392 to be N. 28° 16′ E., change the bearings of YW, WO, OP, and PQ to correspond.

ADDITIONAL PROBLEMS.

49. Assume CD on p. 386 to be a north and south line. Change the bearings of DA, AB, and BC to correspond.

50. Assume QR on p. 392 to be a north and south line. Change the bearings of RS, ST, TY, and YQ to correspond.

51. Assume the bearing of the line UV on p. 392 to be N. 0° E. Change the bearings of VW, WN, NO, OP, PQ, QR, RS, ST, and TU to correspond.

52. The bearings of four lines are given as follows: 1–2 = S. 5° 26′ W., 2–3 = S. 70° 39′ E., 3–4 = N. 47° 48′ E., 4–1 = S. 77° 33′ W. If the bearing of 3–4 is changed to N. 0° E., what are the corresponding bearings of the other three lines?

Exercise B-3.

Calculation of Angles from Bearings.

Reference: Page 382, § 435.

Problem 53: 1. AB = N. 32° E., BC = S. 8° W., CD = N. 72° W., DE = S. 20° W., EF = S. 10° E., FG = N. 63° E., GH = S. 0° E., and HI = S. 89° W.. Find the angles measured clockwise at stations B, C, D, E, F, G, and H.

54. AB = S. 70° W., BC = S. 0° 21′ E., CD = S. 86° 14′ E., DE = S. 46° 43′ W., EF = S. 90° W., FG = N. 12° 37′ E., GH = N. 44° 12′ W., and HI = S. 41° 9′ W. Find the angles measured clockwise at B, C, D, E, F, G, and H.

ADDITIONAL PROBLEMS.

55. Calculate the interior angles of the polygon given in problem 76, p. 122,* and apply the closing check on p. 119, § 175.

56. Calculate the interior angles of the polygon given in problem 77, p. 122,* and apply the closing check on p. 119, § 175.

57. *AB* = S. 0° E., *BC* = S. 42° 18′ E., *CD* = N. 88° 14′ E., *DE* = N. 15° 47′ W., *EF* = N. 90° W., *FG* = S. 38° 58′ W., *GH* = N. 87° 17′ W., *HI* = N. 12° 11′ E. Find the angles measured clockwise at *B*, *C*, *D*, *E*, *F*, *G*, and *H*.

58. *AB* = N. 89° 12′ E., *BC* = N. 20° 19′ W., *CD* = S. 81° 54′ W., *DE* = N. 43° 29′ E., *EF* = S. 67° 21′ E., *FG* = S. 36° 57′ W., *GH* = N. 24° 33′ W., *HI* = N. 80° W. Find the angles measured clockwise at *B*, *C*, *D*, *E*, *F*, *G*, and *H*.

59. Calculate the *deflection* angles at *B*, *C*, *D*, *E*, *F*, *G*, and *H* from the following bearings: *AB* = N. 71° 12′ E., *BC* = S. 87° 23′ E., *CD* = N. 68° 54′ E., *DE* = S. 55° 42′ E., *EF* = N. 65° 24′ E., *FG* = N. 1° 22′ W., *GH* = N. 43° E., *HI* = N. 20° 18′ W. Indicate by the letters "R" and "L" which angles are to the right and which are to the left, and check results by the method explained at the bottom of page 155.

60. Calculate the deflection angles at *B*, *C*, *D*, *E*, *F*, *G*, and *H* from the following bearings: *AB* = S. 83° 09′ W., *BC* = N. 89° 03′ W., *CD* = S. 47° 12′ W., *DE* = S. 0° 0′ W., *EF* = S. 51° 14′ W., *FG* = S. 43° 42′ E., *GH* = S. 0° 09′ E., *HI* = S. 72° 53′ W., *IJ* = S. 20° 11′ W. Indicate by the letters "R" and "L" which angles are to the right and which are to the left, and check results by the method explained at the bottom of p. 155.

61. Calculate the deflection angles at stations: **8 + 50, 14 + 30, 19 + 21, 23 + 72, 28 + 91, 33 + 19,** and **40 + 10.** The bearings of the lines beginning with the line from **0** to **8 + 50** given in order are as follows: S. 80° 10′ E., N. 80° 24′ E., S. 71° 52′ E., S. 1° 11′ E., S. 43° 22′ E., S. 37° 18′ W., S. 86° 04′ W., S. 43° 12′ W. Indicate by the letters "R" and "L" which angles are to the right and which are to the left, and check results by the method explained at the bottom of p. 155.

62. Calculate the deflection angles at stations: **4 + 30, [illegible] + 95, 11 + 81, 15 + 20, 19 + 92, 24 + 03,** and **28 + 11.** The

bearings of the lines beginning with the line from **0** to **4 + 30** given in order are as follows: N. 3° 12′ W., N. 42° 19′ W., N. 0° 03′ E., N. 88° 58′ W., S. 63° 09′ W., N. 47° 18′ W., N. 0° 0′ W., N. 71° 21′ W. Indicate by the letters "R" and "L" which angles are to the right and which are to the left, and check results by the method explained at the bottom of p. 155.

GROUP L.

LATITUDES AND DEPARTURES.

Exercise L.

Calculation of Latitudes and Departures.

Reference: Chapter XXXI, pp. 384 to 394.

Directions: 1. In each problem make a rough sketch of the traverse lines, placing the bearing and length of each line on the sketch, as illustrated on p. 392. 2. Rule five columns with headings corresponding to those on p. 393. 3. In the first column put down the data, i.e. the bearing and length of each line, also the notation for the line, as illustrated in the first column on p. 393. 4. Look up all the logarithms, one right after the other, and enter them in the third and fourth columns; see p. 393. 5. Perform the necessary addition. 6. Look up the departures and latitudes corresponding to the logarithms found by addition, entering each departure and each latitude, as soon as found, in the second and fifth columns, respectively; see p. 393. 7. Tabulate the latitudes and departures as illustrated on p. 394. 8. If the traverse is a polygon and any large error is evident in the sums of the latitudes or the departures, apply the checks explained at the bottom of p. 389.

Note: The above method of procedure is practically the same as that given on p. 389. It will be observed that like operations are grouped (see p. 364, § 423), and the student will save time and avoid mistakes if he will follow closely the method of procedure indicated.

Problems: (To be assigned from the sixteen problems given below.)

Remark: The latitudes and departures computed in any problem of this exercise may be used in a subsequent exercise requiring the calculation of omitted measurements or the area of a polygon. Problems 75, 76 and 77 are used in this way repeatedly in succeeding exercises, while occasional use is made of Problems 71, 72, 73, 74 and 78. It will save time in the end, therefore, to assign as many of the problems given below as possible, even though it may seem that a disproportionate amount of time is being given to the mere calculation of latitudes and departures.

When the student has learned to compute latitudes and departures by means of logarithms, he may be given practice in solving some of the problems by the use of traverse tables. See p. 387, § 444 (b). He may also be given practice in the construction and use of a trigonometer. (See p. 388.)

PROBLEMS.

71. Calculate the latitudes and departures of the transit lines *ABCD*, p. 179.

72. Calculate the latitudes and departures of the transit lines *ABCD*, p. 183.

73. *AB* = N. 25° 16′ E., 150.0 ft.; *BC* = S. 59° 54′ E., 210.0 ft.; *CD* = S. 19° 28′ W., 285.5 ft.; *DA* = N. 32° 14′ W., 282.3 ft. Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures.

74. *AB* = N. 26° 30′ E., 547.3 ft.; *BC* = S. 78° 18′ E., 504.8 ft.; *CD* = S. 9° 01′ E., 315.5 ft.; *DA* = S. 84° 30′ W., 791.6 ft. Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures.

75. *AB* = S. 43° 16′ W., 206.6 ft.; *BC* = S. 12° 43′ E., 196.6 ft.; *CD* = S. 83° 45′ E., 530.9 ft.; *DE* = N. 3° 13′ W., 896.7 ft.; *EA* = S. 37° 26′ W., 623.7 ft. Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures.

76. *AB* = N. 60° 15′ E., 432.6 ft.; *BC* = S. 70° 10′ E., 310.8 ft.; *CD* = S. 35° 30′ W., 290.5 ft.; *DE* = N. 65° 05′ W., 168.2 ft.; *EA* = N. 80° 47′ W., 351.3 ft. Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures.

77. **1–2** = S. 73° 21′ E., 247.2 ft.; **2–3** = S. 40° 10′ E., 154.3 ft.; **3–4** = S. 26° 42′ W., 611.9 ft.; **4–5** = N. 14° 20′ W., 483.5 ft.; **5–1** = N. 12° 20′ E., 273.3 ft. Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures.

78. Assume the bearing of the line *RS*, p. 392, to be S. 0° 0′ E. Change the bearings of *ST*, *TU*, *UV*, *VW*, *WN*, *NO*, *OP*, *PQ*, and *QR* to correspond. Calculate and tabulate the latitudes and departures of the perimeter of the figure, i.e., the polygon *RSTUVWNOPQ*.

79. Same as problem 78 except assume the line *UV* to be a north and south line, and change the bearings of the other nine lines to correspond.

80. **1–2** = N. 7° 54′ E., 483.4 ft.; **2–3** = N. 86° 46′ W., 380.6 ft.; **3–4** = S. 9° 38′ W., 225.9 ft.; **4–5** = S. 20° 10′ E., 241.9 ft.; **5–1** = S. 79° 18′ E., 272.7 ft. Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures.

81. *AB* = N. 50° 55′ W., 449.3 ft.; *BC* = N. 1° 19′ W., 337.8 ft.; *CD* = N. 87° 38′ E., 264.9 ft.; *DE* = S. 38° 50′ E., 205.2 ft.; *EF* = S. 34° 50′ W., 120.5 ft.; *FA* = S. 4° 54′ E., 374.7 ft. Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures.

82. *AB* = N. 2° 05′ W., 183.5 ft.; *BC* = N. 57° 40′ W., 273.3 ft.; *CD* = S. 42° 25′ 30″ W., 639.4 ft.; *DE* = S. 71° 18′ E., 598.4 ft.; *EF* = S. 89° 37′ E., 340.0 ft.; *FA* = N. 35° 14′ W., 412.2 ft. Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures.

83. *AB* = N. 56° 36′ W., 279.0 ft.; *BC* = S. 44° 02′ W., 286.0 ft.; *CD* = S. 25° 00′ W., 171.8 ft.; *DE* = S. 40° 39′ W., 174.1 ft.; *EF* = S. 71° 30′ E., 442.4 ft.; *FG* = S. 87° 37′ E., 445.6 ft.; *GH* = N. 41° 07′ W., 402.8 ft.; *HA* = N. 5° 11′ E., 195.8 ft. Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures.

Problems in calculating latitudes and departures from azimuth (reckoned clockwise from the north). Problems 84 and 85 are rough surveys and the error of closure should be corrected by the first method of balancing a survey explained on p. 395.

84. *AB* = 32° 28′, 334 ft.; *BC* = 20° 34′, 308 ft.; *CD* = 239° 02′, 228 ft.; *DE* = 219° 50′, 183 ft.; *EA* = 175° 00′, 310 ft.; Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures and balance the survey.

85. *AB* = 18° 11′, 450 ft.; *BC* = 355° 00′, 310 ft.; *CD* = 322° 46′, 200 ft.; *DE* = 221° 10′, 460 ft.; *EF* = 152° 00′, 230 ft.; *FG* = 123° 14′, 281 ft.; *GA* = 189° 03′, 195 ft. Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures and balance the survey.

86. Change all the bearings in problem to azimuths, but retain the same lengths. Calculate and tabulate latitudes and departures. (The number of the problem to be inserted in the blank space will be assigned by the instructor from among the first thirteen problems given above.)

Note: An indefinite number of problems may be arranged by changing all the bearings in any one of the above problems by a given amount, as for example, by 30° + or 40° — and so on.

Questions: * 1. What is meant by the term latitude; departure? 2. Explain how each is found from the bearing and length of a line. 3. What are the algebraic signs for the different quadrants of bearings? 4. What is the departure of any north and south line, and the latitude of any east and west line? 5. Explain by means of a sketch how latitudes and departures may be used for determining the position of any station with respect to any other station in a system of transit lines, p. 385. 6. How may the error of closure be ascertained? p. 386. 7. For ordinary

* Many of the explanations involved in the answer to these questions should be illustrated by sketches at the black-board.

transit work what are the permissible errors of closure? p. 160. 8. Suppose that the permissible error for one angle is 30″ and that the total length of the perimeter of a sixteen-sided polygon is 5000 ft. What is the limit for the error of closure? p. 161. 9. Every line has two bearings. Which is used in computing latitudes and departures? p. 387. 10. Explain how to compute latitudes and departures from azimuths, p. 387. 11. Explain the use of traverse tables. 12. Explain the construction and use of a trigonometer. 13. Illustrate by sketch how the *true* bearings of traverse lines may be obtained by observation on Polaris, p. 389, § 445 (3). 14. How could true bearings be obtained from the magnetic bearings if the magnetic declination is known? p. 389, Remark. 15. So far as plotting is concerned, does it make any difference what value is taken for the bearing of the first line if the bearings of the other lines are calculated from that bearing? 16. When the sums of the latitudes or the sums of the departures are not equal within the limit of error, what three checks would you apply? (Bottom of p. 389.)

Questions on balancing survey: 1. What is meant by balancing survey? p. 395. 2. Is it usually necessary to balance a survey for purposes of plotting? 3. When is it necessary to balance a survey? 4. What two general methods are used for balancing a survey? p. 395. 5. Explain the first method. 6. What effect has the balancing of a survey on the original bearings and lengths? p. 396, Note. 7. How may the original bearings and lengths be corrected? 8. Explain the second method of balancing a survey (p. 396): (1) Measurements made under unfavorable conditions. (2) Linear measurements likely to be too long, which quantities should be decreased. (3) Effect of changes of long and short lines. (4) Effect of changes in north and south lines, and east and west lines. 9. Give the substance of Mr. Gould's discussion, p. 397.

GROUP T.

TRIANGULATION.

Exercise T-1.

Computations for Triangulations.

Reference: Page 399, § 448.

Directions: Find by calculation the lengths of the side of each triangle in a triangulation net, using the form shown on p. 400, § 448 (d). The student should prepare the above form for each triangle before looking up logarithms.

Problems: (To be assigned from the problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

101. A triangulation net is composed of three triangles. The base line *BA* = 1070.06 ft. Adjusted values of the angles are given below.

Triangle *ABC*	Triangle *ACD*	Triangle *ADE*
BAC = 82° 16′ 27″	*CAD* = 39° 16′ 11″	*DAE* = 63° 38′ 48″
ACB = 57° 12′ 03″	*ADC* = 100° 42′ 14″	*AED* = 49° 27′ 10″
ABC = 40° 31′ 30″	*DCA* = 40° 01′ 35″	*EDA* = 66° 54′ 02″

102. A triangulation net is composed of three triangles. The base line *BA* = 1421.36 ft. Adjusted values of the angles are given below.

Triangle *ABC*	Triangle *BCD*	Triangle *CDE*
ABC = 64° 48′ 41″	*BCD* = 60° 21′ 18″	*CDE* = 67° 12′ 42″
BAC = 61° 21′ 14″	*CBD* = 80° 24′ 28″	*DCE* = 63° 16′ 20″
ACB = 53° 50′ 05″	*BDC* = 39° 14′ 14″	*CED* = 49° 30′ 58″

103. A triangulation net is composed of three triangles. The base line *AB* = 2121.83 ft. Adjusted values of the angles are given below.

Triangle *ABC*	Triangle *ACE*	Triangle *CBD*
ABC = 55° 10′ 20″	*ACE* = 46° 42′ 20″	*CBD* = 82° 51′ 11″
BAC = 54° 48′ 15″	*CAE* = 88° 51′ 12″	*BCD* = 41° 19′ 04″
ACB = 70° 01′ 25″	*AEC* = 44° 26′ 28″	*CDB* = 55° 49′ 45″

104. A triangulation net is composed of three triangles. The base line BD = 2421.16 ft. Adjusted values of the angles are given below.

Triangle BDC	Triangle BCA	Triangle DCE
BDC = 70° 00′ 45″	BCA = 49° 10′ 15″	DCE = 61° 24′ 10″
DBC = 56° 49′ 04″	CBA = 58° 36′ 30″	CDE = 60° 28′ 14″
BCD = 53° 10′ 11″	BAC = 72° 13′ 15″	DEC = 58° 07′ 36″

105. A triangulation net is composed of three triangles. The base line XY = 3121.42 ft. Adjusted values of the angles are given below.

Triangle XYW	Triangle XWU	Triangle YWV
XYW = 61° 22′ 44″	XWU = 59° 18′ 40″	YWV = 80° 09′ 10″
YXW = 58° 21′ 10″	WXU = 63° 12′ 10″	WYV = 40° 12′ 14″
XWY = 60° 16′ 06″	XUW = 57° 29′ 10″	YVW = 59° 38′ 36″

106. A triangulation net is composed of three triangles. The base line RS = 432.461 ft. Adjusted values of the angles are given below.

Triangle RST	Triangle RTU	Triangle STV
RST = 40° 21′ 40″	RTU = 38° 18′ 47″	STV = 94° 51′ 07″
SRT = 55° 39′ 15″	TRU = 93° 44′ 21″	TSV = 44° 06′ 41″
RTS = 83° 59′ 05″	RUT = 47° 56′ 52″	SVT = 41° 02′ 12″

107. A triangulation net is composed of three triangles. The base line 1–2 = 496.831 ft. Adjusted values of the angles are given below.

Triangle 1–2–3	Triangle 1–2–5	Triangle 2–3–4
1–2–3 = 37° 18′ 43″	1–2–5 = 43° 18′ 47″	2–3–4 = 61° 21′ 18″
2–1–3 = 36° 21′ 48″	2–1–5 = 41° 48′ 03″	3–2–4 = 58° 53′ 12″
1–3–2 = 106° 19′ 29″	1–5–2 = 94° 53′ 10″	2–4–3 = 59° 45′ 30″

108. A triangulation net is composed of three triangles. The base line 1–2 = 468.432 ft. Adjusted values of the angles are given below.

Triangle 1–2–3	Triangle 1–3–4	Triangle 3–4–5
1–2–3 = 92° 24′ 51″	1–3–4 = 41° 02′ 11″	3–4–5 = 40° 08′ 48″
2–1–3 = 41° 52′ 21″	3–1–4 = 44° 53′ 17″	4–3–5 = 41° 37′ 44″
1–3–2 = 45° 42′ 48″	1–4–3 = 94° 04′ 32″	3–5–4 = 98° 13′ 28″

Exercise T-2.

Miscellaneous Problems in Triangulation.

109. In Fig. 277 (e), p. 223, the length of the base-line CD is 423.738 ft. $ACD = 109° 11' 30''$, $BCD = 43° 42' 12''$, $ADC = 33° 18' 24''$, $BDC = 66° 28' 20''$. Compute the length of AB.

110. In Fig. 277 (f), p. 223, in order to find the distance AC a base line AE was laid off and its length found to be 231.763 ft. $CAE = 36° 19' 36''$, $CEA = 81° 54' 10''$. The vertical angle $CAB = 21° 18' 40''$. The level line AC strikes the building four feet above a point on the ground. How high is the point B above the same point on the ground?

111. In the figure on p. 217 the length of base line No. 1 is 879.453, and that of base line No. 2 is 943.768 ft. $NHS = 38° 21' 40''$, $HNS = 37° 10' 5''$, $HSN = 104° 28' 15''$; $MSN = 68° 30' 42''$, $SMN = 62° 57' 45''$, $MNS = 48° 31' 33.''$ Make all of the computations that are necessary for locating Piers A and B, assuming that the three spans are equal.

GROUP O.

OMITTED MEASUREMENTS.

Exercise O-1.

To Calculate the Bearing and Length of an Omitted Side of a Polygon.

Reference: **Pages 400 to 402, Case I.**

Directions: Follow the method of procedure given at the bottom of p. 401.

Problem: (To be assigned from the fourteen problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

Note: In the first six problems the student may use latitudes and departures which he may have already calculated in the examples on p. 122.* In each problem there will be two solutions, the first from the lines of the polygon on one side of the missing line, the second from the lines of the polygon on the other side of the missing line. If there is no error of closure the results should be the same.

Find the length and bearing of the line

121. From *D* to *A* in Problem 75, p. 122.*
122. From *B* to *E* in Problem 76, p. 122.*
123. From **3** to **5** in Problem 77, p. 122.*
124. From *V* to *P* in Problem 78, p. 122.*
125. From *O* to *Q* in Problem 79, p. 122.*
126. From *E* to *H* in Problem 83, p. 123.*

127.

Line	Bearing	Length	Latitude	Departure
MN	S. 47° 03′ W.	291.7	198.7	213.6
NO	N. 43° 55′ W	251.4	181.1	174.4
OP	N. 14° 57′ E.	346.4	334.1	89.2
PQ	N. 26° 12′ E.	250.7	224.9	110.7

Find the bearing and length of the line *QM*.

128.

Line	Bearing	Length	Latitude	Departure
MN	N. 47° 48′ E.	1000.6 ft.	672.14	741.26
NO	N. 62° 38′ W.	573.29 ft.	263.53	509.13
OP	S. 76° 40′ W.	330.33 ft.	76.18	321.42
PQ	S. 5° 26′ W.	804.99 ft.	801.38	76.23

Find the bearing and length of the line *QM*.

129. *EA* = N. 65° 05′ E., 804.6 ft.; *AB* = S. 50° 20′ E., 370.5 ft.; *BC* = S. 25° 16′ W., 315.8 ft.; *CD* = S. 45° 31′ W., 291.6 ft. Find the bearing and length of *DE*.

130. *GC* = N. 84° 27′ W., 268.5 ft.; *CD* = N. 31° 53′ W., 337.2 ft.; *DE* = N. 30° 11′ E., 263.9 ft.; *EF* = S. 65° 10′ E., 310.6 ft. Find the bearing and length of *FG*.

131. **1–2** = N. 41° 48′ E., 212.4 ft.; **2–3** = S. 68° 19′ E., 411.3 ft.; **3–4** = S. 3° 51′ E., 394.7 ft.; **4–5** = S. 36° 10′ W., 381.6 ft. Find the bearing and length of **5–1**.

132. **1–2** = N. 46° 18′ W., 321.6 ft.; **2–3** = S. 48° 59′ W., 401.7 ft.; **3–4** = S. 0° 49′ E., 372.1 ft.; **4–5** = S. 8° 09′ E., 241.8 ft. Find the bearing and length of **5–1**.

133. In Problem 107, p. 126,* assume that the angles **3–2–4** and **2–4–3** are not known, but that all the other angles are as given in that problem. (*a*) Assume the bearing of **4–3** to be any value you please, and from this bearing compute the bearings of **3–1**, **1–5**, and **5–2** by the method of Chapter XXX, using angles **4–3–1**, **3–1–5**, and **1–5–2**. (*b*) Using these bearings and the lengths of **4–3**, **3–1**, **1–5**, and **5–2** (found by computation in Exercise T-1), compute the latitudes and departures of these four lines. (*c*) From these latitudes and departures compute the length and bearing of the line **2–4**. (*d*) Compare this length of **2–4** with the length found in the triangulation computation. (*e*) From the bearings of **4–3** and **4–2** find the angle **3–4–2** and compare its value with the value of **3–4–2** given in Problem 107, p. 126.*

134. A problem similar to Problem 133 made up from one of the triangulation problems on p. 125 or 126.*

Exercise O-2.

To Calculate the Omitted Bearing of One Side and the Omitted Length of Another Side of a Polygon.

Reference: Page 403, Case II.

Directions: Problems under Case II may be solved by two methods. In each of the problems given below follow that order of procedure on p. 403 which corresponds to the method called for in the problem. Notice the Remark, p. 403.

Problem: (To be assigned from the seventeen problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

Note: In each of the first seven problems the student may use the latitudes and departures which he may have already calculated in the corresponding problem on p. 122,* except, of course, the latitude and departure of a side whose bearing or length is assumed to be omitted.

141. In Problem 75, p. 122,* assume the bearing of *DE* and the length of *EA* to be omitted. Calculate the omitted measurements by the first method of Case II, p. 403.

142. Same as Problem 141 except use the second method of Case II, p. 403.

143. In Problem 76, p. 122,* assume the bearing of *BC* and the length of *CD* to be omitted. Calculate the omitted measurements by the first method of Case II, p. 403.

144. Same as Problem 143 except use the second method of Case II, p. 403.

145. In Problem 77, p. 122,* assume the bearing of **3–4** and the length of **4–5** to be omitted. Calculate the omitted measurements by the first method of Case II, p. 403.

146. Same as Problem 145 except use the second method of Case II, p. 403.

147. A problem similar to the above problems made up from one of the problems on p. 122, 123, 125 or 126.*

148. *CD* = S. 47° 29′ W., 562.3 ft.; *DA* = N. 50° 15′ W., 380.4 ft.; *AB* = S. 65° 27′ E.; *BC* = 435.2 ft. Calculate the bearing of *BC* and the length of *AB*. Use the first method of Case II and check by the second method.

149. *AB* = N. 73° 58′ W., 125.5 ft.; *BC* = S. 8° 48′ E., 163.9 ft.; *CD* = 87.5 ft.; *DA* = N. 5° 40′ E. Calculate the bearing of *CD* and the length of *DA*. Use the first method of Case II and check by the second method.

150. *AB* = N. 40° 20′ E., 302.6 ft.; *BC* = N. 71° 15′ E., 282.2 ft.; *CD* = S. 50° 10′ E.; *DE* = S. 45° 25′ W., 510.6 ft.; *EA* = 466.3 ft. Calculate the bearing of *EA* and the length of *CD*, using the second method of Case II.

151. Same as Problem 150, using the first method of Case II.

152. *AB* = N. 40° 00′ E., 530.2 ft.; *BC* = S. 60° 20′ E., 421.6 ft.; *CD* = 527.4 ft.; *DE* = S. 65° 10′ W.; *EA* = N. 35° 10′ W., 578.6 ft. Calculate the bearing of *CD* and length of *DE*, using *the first* method of Case II.

153. Same as Problem 151, using the second method of Case II.

154. (In this problem the omitted measurements affect sides which are not adjacent.) *AB* = N. 46° 05′ E., 433.4 ft.; *BC* = S. 62° 50′ E., 183.6 ft.; *CD* = S. 27° 28′ E., 402.7 ft.; *DE* = S. 39° 48′ W.; *EF* = N. 52° 07′ W., 323.6 ft.; *FA* = 298.6 ft. Calculate the bearing of *FA* and the length of *DE*, using the second method of Case II.

155. Same as Problem 154, using first method of Case II.

156. *AB* = N. 32° 05′ E., 263.2 ft.; *BC* = N. 74° 18′ E., 234.4 ft.; *CD* = S. 12° 52′ W., 465.3 ft.; *DE* = 525.0 ft.; *EA* = S. 62° 27′ W. Calculate the bearing of *DE* and the length of *EA*, using the first method of Case II.

157. Same as Problem 156, using the second method of Case II.

Exercise O-3.

To Calculate the Omitted Lengths of Two Sides of a Polygon.

Reference: Page 404, Case III.

Directions: Problems under Case III may be solved by two methods. In each of the problems given below follow that order of procedure on p. 404, which corresponds to the method called for in the problem. Notice the " Remark " on p. 404.

Problem: (To be assigned from the fourteen problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

Note: In each of the first seven problems the student may use the latitudes and departures which he may have already calculated in the corresponding problem on p.122,* except, of course, the latitude and departure of a side whose length is assumed to be omitted.

171. In Problem 75, p. 122,* assume the lengths of *BC* and *CD* to be omitted. Calculate the omitted measurements by the first method of Case III, p. 404.

172. Same as Problem 171 except use the second method of Case III, p. 404.

173. In Problem 76, p. 122,* assume the lengths of *BC* and *CD* to be omitted. Calculate the omitted measurements by the first method of Case III, p. 404.

174. Same as Problem 173 except use the second method of Case III, p. 404.

175. In Problem 77, p. 122,* assume the lengths of **2–3** and **4–5** to be omitted. Calculate the omitted measurements by the first method of Case III, p. 404.

176. Same as Problem 175 except use the second method of Case III, p. 404.

177. A problem similar to the above problems, made up from one of the problems on p. 122, 123, 125 or 126.*

178. *AB* = N. 68° 11′ W., 216.0 ft.; *BC* = S. 33° 35′ W., 167.0 ft.; *CD* = S. 32° 27′ E.; *DA* = N. 41° 59′ E. Calculate the lengths of *CD* and *DA*. Use the first method of Case III, and check by the second method.

179. *AB* = N. 16° 42′ E., 273.0 ft.; *BC* = S. 68° 23′ W., 388.5 ft.; *CD* = S. 10° 12′ E.; *DA* = N. 50° 46′ E. Calculate the lengths of *CD* and *DA*. Use the first method of Case III, and check by the second method.

180. *AB* = N. 36° 30′ E., 608.1 ft.; *BC* = S. 68° 18′ E., 560.9 ft.; *CD* = S. 0° 59′ E.; *DA* = N. 85° 30′ W. Calculate the lengths of *CD* and *DA*. Use the first method of Case III, and check by the second method.

181. *AB* = N. 10° 20′ W., 248.3 ft.; *BC* = N. 62° 18′ E., 324.6 ft.; *CD* = S. 74° 27′ E.; *DE* = S. 20° 22′ W.; *EA* = S. 68° 50′ W., 463.5 ft. Calculate the lengths of *CD* and *DE*, using the second method of Case III.

182. Same as Problem 181, using the first method of Case III.

183. (In this problem the omitted measurements affect sides which are not adjacent.) *AB* = S. 70° 05′ W., 437.9 ft.; *BC* = N. 15° 54′ W.; *CD* = N. 38° 16′ E., 217.6 ft.; *DE* = S. 10° 02′ W.; *EA* = S. 72° 25′ E., 366.4 ft. Calculate the lengths of *BC* and *DE*, using the second method of Case III.

184. Same as Problem 183, using the first method of Case III.

Exercise O-4.

To Calculate the Omitted Bearings of Two Sides of a Polygon.

Reference: Page 404, Case IV.

Directions: Follow the method of procedure of Case IV, p. 404. Notice the "Remark" under this case.

Problem: . (To be assigned from the nine problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

Note: In each of the first four problems the student may use the latitudes and departures which he may have already calculated in the corresponding problems on p. 122,* except, of course, the latitude and departure of a side whose bearing is assumed to be omitted.

191. In Problem 75, p. 122,* assume the bearings of *BC* and *CD* to be omitted. Calculate the omitted measurements by the method of Case IV, p. 404.

192. In Problem 76, p. 122,* assume the bearing of *BC* and *CD* to be omitted. Calculate the omitted measurements by the method of Case IV, p. 404.

193. In Problem 77, p. 122,* assume the bearings of **2–3** and **3–4** to be omitted. Calculate the omitted measurements by the method of Case IV, p. 404.

194. A problem similar to the above problems, made up from one of the problems on p. 122, 123, 125 or 126.*

195. *AB* = N. 53° 56′ W., 296.4 ft.; *BC* = S. 21° 53′ W., 338.7 ft.; *CD* = 301.0 ft.; *DA* = 406.8 ft. Calculate the bearings of *CD* and *DA*.

196. *BC* = S. 41° 45′ W., 279.8 ft.; *CD* = N. 22° 14′ W., 286.4 ft.; *DA* = 194.2 ft.; *AB* = 254.5 ft. Calculate the bearings of *AB* and *DA*.

197. *AB* = 172.2 ft.; *BC* = 257.5 ft.; *CD* = S. 63° 37′ E., 298.8 ft.; *DA* = N. 13° 25′ W., 261.6 ft. Calculate the bearings of *AB* and *BC*.

198. (In this problem the omitted measurements affect sides which are not adjacent.) *AB* = N. 38° 40′ E., 340.5 ft.; *BC* = S. 67° 07′ E., 527.7 ft.; *CD* = 272.3 ft.; *DE* = S. 84° 44′ W. 669.6 ft.; *EA* = 265.2 ft. Calculate the bearings of CD and EA.

199. *AB* = Latitude 234.5 ft. N., departure 181.4 ft. E.; *BC* = Latitude 105.3 ft. N., departure 356.4 ft. E.; *CD* = Latitude 262.1 ft. S., departure 179.4 ft. E.; *DE* = 385.6 ft.; *EA* = 532.2 ft. Find the lengths of *AB*, *BC*, and *CD*, and the bearings of *DE* and *EA*.

Exercise O-5.

Calculation of Omitted Measurements.

Miscellaneous Problems.

211. In the figure on p. 405, let the distances *Aa* = 49.3 ft., *Bb* = 28.2 ft., *Cc* = 33.4 ft., and *Dd* = 24.4 ft. Angles *Aab* = 90° 23′, *cdD* = 102° 10′. Find the bearings and lengths of *AB*, *BC*, and *CD*. (See p. 406.)

212. In the figure on p. 177, assume the bearing of *BC* = N. 9° 15′ E. (1) From the notes on p. 176, calculate the bearings of *AB*, *BC*, *CD*, and *DA*, and also the bearing of the line from each station to the nearest corner. (2) By the method of Case I, p 401, calculate in order the bearings and lengths of the lines **1–2**, **2–3**, **3–4**, and **4–1**. (See illustration, p. 402, § 451 (c.))

213. Same as Problem 212 except use the method illustrated on p. 406.

214. By the method of Case I, p. 401, calculate the bearings and lengths of the three fence lines on p. 183.

215. Same as Problem 214 except use the method illustrated on p. 406.

Problems in Mine Surveying.

216. A vertical shaft of a mine is located at a point *A* and another at a point *E*. A point *E′* is at the bottom of the shaft directly under *E*. An underground traverse is run from E′ ending at a point *A′* directly under *A*. The bearing of *E′F′* was *assumed* as S. 89° 05′ E. The other values are as follows: *E′F′* = 294.76 ft.; *F′G′* = S. 89° 22′ E., 322.4 ft.; *G′H′* = N. 15° 59′ E., 710 ft.; *H′I′* = N. 15° 06′ W., 390.3 ft.; *I′A′* = N. 63° 03′ W., 259.5 ft. Afterward a traverse was run on the surface of the ground as follows: *AB* = 636.43 ft.; *ABC* = 100° 49′, *BC* = 624.34 ft.; *BCD* = 180° 41′, *CD* = 218.66 ft.; *CDE* = 148° 23′, *DE* = 239.45 ft. All angles were measured clockwise. The true

bearing of AB was determined as S. 44° 18′ W. It is required to correct the assumed bearings of the underground survey so that they will be true bearings.

Note: As far as possible the logarithmic values on p. 393 may be used in the above example.

217. A traverse is run on the surface of the ground as follows: AB = S. 41° 22′ E., 281.1 ft.; ABC = 110° 45′, BC = 240.8 ft.; BCD = 124° 30′, CD = 339.7 ft. Angles measured clockwise. At D a vertical shaft is sunk. From A a tunnel is run in a northeasterly direction at right angles to AB for 160 ft. to a point E' underground. It is then desired to run from E' to a point D' at the bottom of the shaft directly under D. What angle $AE'D'$ should be turned off clockwise?

If the elevation of A is 260.18 ft. and of D 428.16 ft. how deep will the shaft be from D to D' if the tunnel from A to E' is on a 5% grade and from E' to D' on a 6% grade?

218. A traverse is run on the surface of the ground from a point A to a point E as follows: AB = 241.2 ft.; ABC = 129° 50′; BC = 204.3 ft.; BCD = 238° 46′, CD = 334.3 ft.; CDE = 125° 18′, DE = 380.2 ft. The bearing of DE = S. 54° 28′ E. At E there is a vertical shaft at the bottom of which is E' directly under E.

An underground traverse is run from E' to a point H' as follows: A line $M'E'$ is established directly below DE. $M'E'F'$ = $DE'F'$ = 103° 12′, $E'F'$ = 396.3 ft.; $E'F'G'$ = 118° 45′, $F'G'$ = 431.1 ft.; $F'G'H'$ = 151° 13′, $G'H'$ = 346.3 ft. All angles measured clockwise. It is desired to sink a vertical shaft from a point H on the surface directly over H'. H is to be located by two intersecting lines passing through A and B respectively, and checked by a third line passing through C. Required the angles BAH, ABH and BCH and the lengths AH, BH and CH.

219. A boundary line of a mining claim is AB = S. 13° 30′ W., length = 350.8 ft. A traverse is run on the surface from A to D as follows: (angles measured clockwise) ABC = 91° 30′, BC = 226.4 ft.; BCD = 146° 05′, CD = 290.2 ft. At D is a vertical shaft, D' at the bottom being directly under D. An underground traverse is run from D' to G' as follows: $CD'E'$ = 135° 10′, $D'E'$ = 292.3 ft.; $D'E'F'$ = 87° 20′, $E'F'$ = 192.1 ft.; $E'F'G'$ = 110° 6′, $F'G'$ = 238.8′. From G' it is desired to run due east to a point H' directly under the boundary line AB. Required the distance $G'H'$ and the distance AH, H being directly over H′.

Questions on the calculation of omitted measurements. 1. Why is the check given at the top of p. 400 better than the one on the preceding page? 2. How may triangulation be checked? (Remark 448 (c), p. 400.) 3. Can triangulation nets be solved by right-angled triangle methods? 4. Explain by a sketch the trigonometric relations between bearing, length, latitude, and departure. 5. What are "missing parts" in a polygon and how many parts may be omitted and still have the polygon determinate? 6. What are the four general cases in calculation of omitted measurements? p 401. 7. What is the principal difference between Case I and the other three cases? 8. Explain the method of Case I. 9. Explain the general method of Cases II, III, and IV. 10. In Cases II, III, and IV, show by figure that it is immaterial whether the two sides affected by omitted measurements are adjacent or not, p. 402, § 451 (d). 11. Why are two answers possible in Cases II and III? 12. Explain a second method used for Case II and Case III. 13. When is Case IV indeterminate? 14. Answer the question at the end of the chapter, p. 406.

GROUP A.

AREAS.

Exercise A-1.

The Use of the Planimeter.

Reference: Page 408, § 457.

Directions: Study carefully the directions of § 457 (c) and the practical suggestions on p. 409. This exercise is intended merely to teach the use of the planimeter. Additional practice in the use of the instrument should be obtained by checking the areas found in some of the other exercises by computations.

Problem: Draw accurately a circle of 4″ diameter, a square 3″ on a side, and a hexagon inscribed in a circle 5″ in diameter. Using the planimeter find the area of each of these three figures and check the results by computations.

Questions: 1. Give the general method of using the planimeter. 2. Does it make any difference whether the fixed point is placed within or without the boundary? 3. Give some practical suggestions, p. 409. 4. What tests should be made before using the planimeter? General direction, p. 410.

Exercise A-2.

To Compute Areas Directly from Field Measurements.

Reference: Page 410.

Directions: Compute the area of a polygon directly from measurements by the methods explained in § 458, giving the answer in square feet and in acres. Before beginning this exercise, make out a table in which 43560 is multiplied by each digit from 2 to 9. (See p. 377.) Do not carry computations farther than the data will warrant. (See p. 369, § 425.)

Problem: (To be assigned from the six problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

231. The lengths of the sides of a four-sided polygon are as follows: $AB = 91.0$ ft., $BC = 83.9$ ft., $CD = 113.9$ ft., $DA = 91.1$ ft. The diagonal $AC = 130.2$ ft. Find the area of the polygon.

232. The lengths of the sides of a four-sided polygon are as follows: $AB = 75.3$ ft., $BC = 129.6$ ft., $CD = 97.0$ ft., $DA = 98.3$ ft. The diagonal $AC = 132.4$ ft. Find the area of the polygon.

233. The lengths of the sides of a four-sided polygon are as follows: $AB = 120.4$ ft., $BC = 83.6$ ft., $CD = 76.4$ ft., $DA = 94.7$ ft. From a point E near the center of the polygon distances are as follows: $EA = 75.0$ ft., $EB = 71.2$ ft., $EC = 54.7$ ft., $ED = 62.7$ ft. Find the area of the polygon.

234. The lengths of the sides of a four-sided polygon are as follows: $AB = 85.5$ ft., $BC = 98.0$ ft., $CD = 101.0$ ft., $DA = 99.0$ ft. From a point E near the center of the polygon distances are as follows: $EA = 54.9$ ft., $EB = 63.3$ ft., $EC = 69.0$ ft., $ED = 83.2$ ft. Find the area of the polygon.

235. Find the area of the polygon in Fig. 178, p. 120. See also p. 410, § 458 (c).

236. Find the area of the polygon *ABCD*, p. 179. See also p. 410, § 458 (c).

Exercise A-3.

Calculation of Areas from Offsets.

Reference: Pages 411 to 413.

Directions: Where offsets are at regular intervals use the "Trapezoidal Rule," p. 411. Where offsets are at irregular intervals use the first method, p. 412, § 459 (c), and check by the second method, arranging the work in determinate array as indicated in the illustration on p. 413.

Problem: (To be assigned from the four problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

241. Offsets at 25-ft. intervals are as follows: **0+0**=20 ft., **0+ 25**=14 ft., **0 + 50** = 18 ft., **0 + 75** = 6 ft., **1 + 0** = 12 ft., **1+ 25**= 16 ft., **1 + 50** = 21 ft., **1+ 75** = 18 ft., **2 + 0** = 14 ft. Find the area in square feet.

242. Offsets at 50-ft. intervals are as follows: **0 + 0** = 18 ft., **0 + 50** = 23 ft., **1+ 0** = 36 ft., **1 + 50** = 30 ft., **2 + 0** = 16 ft., **2 + 50** = 28 ft., **3 + 0** = 37 ft., **3 + 50** = 41 ft., **4 + 0** = 21 ft. Find the area in square feet.

243. Offsets at irregular intervals are as follows: **0 + 0** = 12 ft., **0 + 20** = 18 ft., **0 + 60** = 24 ft., **0 + 82** = 15 ft., **0 + 95** =23 ft., **1 + 10** = 43 ft., **1 + 28** = 31 ft., **1 + 50** = 38 ft., **1+90** = 17 ft., **2 + 20** = 28 ft., **2 + 40** = 20 ft. Find the area in square feet.

244. Offsets at irregular intervals are as follows: **0 + 0** = 46 ft., **0 + 30** = 31 ft., **0 + 50** = 38 ft., **0 + 80** = 24 ft., **0 + 96**=12 ft., **1 + 16** = 27 ft., **1 + 30** = 22 ft., **1 + 70** = 14 ft., **2+10**= 28 ft., **2 + 40** = 36 ft., **2 + 70** = 25 ft., **3 + 20** = 8 ft. Find the area in square feet.

Exercise A-4.

Calculation of Areas from Latitudes and Double Longitudes.

Reference: Page 413.

Directions: Follow the method of procedure on p. 416, arranging the work as shown at the bottom of p. 417. It is well at first to compute the areas of figures whose latitudes and departures have been calculated in previous problems and thus avoid the work involved in the first step.

Problem: (To be assigned from the sixteen problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

• *Note:* In each of the first seven problems the student may use the latitudes and departures which he may have already calculated in the corresponding problem on p. 122.*

251. Calculate the area of the polygon in Problem 71, p. 122.*

252. Calculate the area of the polygon in Problem 72, p. 122.*

253. Calculate the area of the polygon in Problem 73, p. 122.*

254. Calculate the area of the polygon in Problem 74, p. 122.*

255. Calculate the area of the polygon in Problem 75, p. 122.*

256. Calculate the area of the polygon in Problem 76, p. 122.*

257. Calculate the area of the polygon in Problem 77, p. 122.*

258. From the latitudes and departures tabulated on p. 394, calculate the area of the figure on p. 392.

259. Calculate the area of the polygon in one of the problems (to be assigned) from 79 to 85 inclusive, pp. 122, 123.*

260. Calculate the area of one of the triangulation nets in Exercise T–1, p. 125,* by the method of latitudes and double longitudes, and check the result by the use of Formula 12, p. 408.

261. Calculate the area of the polygon in Problem 127, p. 128.*

262. Calculate the area of the polygon in Problem 128, p. 128.*

263. Calculate the area of the polygon in one of the problems of Exercise O–2, p. 129.*

264. Calculate the area of the polygon in one of the problems of Exercise O–3, p. 131.*

265. Making use of the results obtained in Problem 212, p. 134,* find the area in square feet of the polygon **1–2–3–4** on p. 177.

266. Making use of the results obtained in Problem 214, p. 134,* calculate the area of the land described on p. 183. Use the method of latitudes and double longitudes except for the portion between *CB* and the edge of the brook; this should be calculated from the offsets. (See also illustration at bottom of p. 419 for explanation of method.)

Questions: 1. What is usually taken as a reference meridian? p. 414. 2. How is the most westerly station determined? p. 472. 3. What is meant by the first and last courses? p. 414. 4. What is the longitude of a course and how is it obtained from the longitude of the preceding course? 5. Explain by means of a sketch the general method of calculating areas from latitudes and longitudes. 6. Why are double longitudes used and how is a double longitude of any course obtained from the longitude of the preceding course? p. 416. 7. Outline the general method of computing areas from latitudes and double longitudes, p. 416. 8. What are some of the sources of *mistakes?* p. 417. 9. By means of a sketch explain the method of computing areas from coördinates, p. 418. 10. Explain two general methods of computing irregular areas, p. 419. 11. Compare the two methods, p. 420.

Exercise A-5.

To Part Off a Required Area by a Line Having a Given Direction.

Reference: Case I, p. 422.

Directions: Follow the method of procedure of Case I, p. 422. Before beginning the exercise study carefully the illustration on p. 423.

Problem: . (To be assigned from the fourteen problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

Note: In each of the first nine problems the student may use the area already calculated in the corresponding problem on p. 139 or p. 140.*

271. Divide the polygon in Problem 253, p. 139,* into two parts having equal areas by a line parallel to *CD*.

272. Divide the polygon in Problem 254, p. 140,* into two parts having equal areas by a line parallel to *DA*.

273. Divide the polygon in Problem 255, p. 140,* into two parts having equal areas by a line whose bearing is N. 30° W.

274. Divide the polygon in Problem 256, p. 140,* into two parts having equal areas by a line whose bearing is N. 60° W.

275. Divide the polygon in Problem 257, p. 140,* into two parts having equal areas by a line whose bearing is S. 60° E.

276. Divide the polygon in Problem 258, p. 140,* into two parts having equal areas by a line whose bearing is N. 75° E.

277. Same as Problem 276 except the bearing of the dividing line is N. 4° W.

278. Divide the polygon in Problem 261, p. 140,* into two parts one of which (bounded by the line *NO*) has an area double that of the other. The bearing of the dividing line is N. 45° W.

279. Divide the polygon in Problem 262, p. 140,* into two parts one of which (bounded by the line *MN*) has an area double that of the other. The dividing line is parallel to *MN*.

280. Find the position of a line parallel to *AB* which will divide the polygon *ABCDEF* into two equal parts. The latitudes and departures of the lines are as follows: *AB* = 400 ft. S., 800 ft. E.; *BC* = 300 ft. S., 500 ft. W.; *CD* = 600 ft. S., 400 ft. E.; *DE* = 200 ft. S., 1000 ft. W.; *EF* = 900 ft. N., 600 ft. W.; *FA* = 600 ft. N., 900 ft. *E*.

281. Find the position of a line parallel to *ED* which will divide the polygon *ABCDE* into two equal parts. The latitudes and departures of the lines are as follows: *EA* = 1500 ft. N., 300 ft. E.; *AB* = 400 ft. S., 800 ft. E.; *BC* = 300 ft. S., 500 ft. W.; *CD* = 600 ft. S., 400 ft. E.; *DE* = 200 ft. S., 1000 W.

282. Same as Problem 280 except that the area to be parted off is 10 acres, bounded on one side by *AB*.

283. Same as Problem 281 except that the area to be parted off is 8 acres, bounded on one side by *ED*.

284. Divide the land described on p. 179 into two equal parts by a line perpendicular to the street line.

Exercise A-6.

To Part Off a Required Area by a Line Starting from a Given Point.

Reference: Case II, p. 424.

Directions: Follow the method of procedure of Case II, p. 424. Before beginning the exercise study carefully the illustration on p. 426.

Problem: . (To be assigned from the fourteen problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

Note: In each of the first nine problems the student may use the area already calculated in the corresponding problem on p. 139* or p. 140.*

291. Divide the polygon in Problem 253, p. 139,* into two parts having equal areas by a line starting from the point *A*.

292. Divide the polygon in Problem 254, p. 140,* into two parts having equal areas by a line starting from the point *B*.

293. Divide the polygon in Problem 255, p. 140,* into two parts *having* equal areas by a line starting from a point half way *between* *A* and *E*.

294. Divide the polygon in Problem 256, p. 140,* into two parts having equal areas by a line starting from a point half way between *B* and *C*.

295. Divide the polygon in Problem 257, p. 140,* into two parts having equal areas by a line starting from a point half way between **5** and **1**.

296. Divide the polygon in Problem 258, p. 140,* into two parts having equal areas by a line starting from the point *Q*.

297. Same as Problem 296 except the dividing line starts from the point *V* instead of *Q*.

298. Divide the polygon in Problem 261, p. 140,* into two parts one of which (bounded by the line *NO*) has an area double that of the other. The dividing line starts from *M*.

299. Divide the polygon in Problem 262, p. 140,* into two parts one of which (bounded by the line *MN*) has an area double that of the other. The dividing line starts from *Q*.

300. Same as Problem 280 of the preceding exercise, p. 142,* except that the dividing line starts from *A*, its direction being unknown.

301. Same as Problem 281 of the preceding exercise, p. 142,* except that the dividing line starts from *C*, its direction being unknown.

302. Same as Problem 282 of the preceding exercise, p. 142,* except that the dividing line starts from *C*, its direction being unknown.

303. Same as Problem 283 of the preceding exercise, p. 142,* except that the dividing line starts from a point on *EA* 500 ft. from *E*.

304. Divide the land described on p. 179 into two equal parts by a line starting from the middle of the western side.

GROUP E.

EARTHWORK CALCULATION.

Exercise E–1.

To Calculate Earthwork by the Method of Unit Areas.

(All cut or all fill.)

References: Pages 428 to 430, also page 287, § 362.

Directions: Before beginning the computation make a sketch as directed in the method of procedure at the bottom of p. 430. Follow this method of procedure closely, observing the practical suggestion on p. 431.

Problem: (To be assigned from the fourteen problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

When the finished surface is level.

311. A rectangular plot is divided into 20-ft. squares and the corners are numbered according to the system shown in Fig. 402 (c), p. 341. The elevations at each corner in feet are as follows:

$A0 = 28.1$,
$A1 = 26.2$,
$A2 = 24.3$,
$A3 = 27.1$,
$A4 = 22.4$,
$A5 = 21.9$,
$A6 = 26.3$,
$B0 = 25.2$,
$B1 = 23.2$,
$B2 = 25.9$,
$B3 = 22.2$,
$B4 = 20.1$,
$B5 = 19.4$,
$B6 = 24.3$,
$C0 = 23.1$,
$C1 = 20.1$,
$C2 = 21.8$,
$C3 = 19.4$,
$C4 = 17.6$,
$C5 = 16.1$,
$C6 = 18.4$,
$D0 = 20.2$,
$D1 = 17.4$,
$D2 = 16.9$,
$D3 = 15.4$,
$D4 = 14.5$,
$D5 = 13.2$,
$D6 = 15.4$,
$E0 = 23.8$,
$E1 = 21.2$,
$E2 = 18.0$,
$E3 = 17.8$,
$E4 = 18.9$,
$E5 = 21.1$,
$E6 = 22.3$,
$F0 = 24.0$,
$F1 = 25.1$,
$F2 = 26.4$,
$F3 = 26.9$,
$F4 = 25.3$,
$F5 = 23.8$,
$F6 = 27.1$.

If the ground is graded to a level surface whose elevation is *12 ft.*, find the amount of earth to be removed. Answer in ***cubic yards.***

312. Same as Problem 311 except it is required to find the amount of earth which must be filled in to bring the entire lot to a level surface whose elevation is 30 ft.

313. Same as Problem 311 except that the unit area is a 50-ft. square and the elevation of the level surface is 8.4 ft.

314. Same as Problem 312 except that the unit area is a 50-ft. square and the elevation of the level surface is 28.1 ft.

315. Same as Problem 311 except the unit area is a 50-ft. square and the elevation of the level surface is 9.9 ft.

316. Same as Problem 312 except the unit area is a 50-ft. square and the elevation of the level surface is 29.2 ft.

When the finished surface slopes in one direction only.

317. Assume the data given in Problem 311. The elevation of the finished surface at *A*0 and *F*0 is 12 ft., and this surface slopes downward at the rate of 1 ft. per 100 ft. to the line between *A*6 and *F*6 which is horizontal. Find the amount of earth to be removed.

318. Assume the data given in Problem 311. The elevation of the finished surface at *A*6 and *F*6 is 30 ft., and this surface slopes upward at the rate of 0.5 ft. per 100 ft. to the line between *A*0 and *F*0 which is horizontal. Find the amount of earth to be added.

319. Same as Problem 317 except the slope is 1.5 ft. per 100 ft.

320. Same as Problem 318 except the slope is 1.0 ft. per 100 ft.

When the finished surface slopes in two directions.

321. Assume the data given in Problem 311. The plane of the finished surface is determined by two lines, one from *A*0 to *A*6, the other from *A*6 to *F*6. The elevation of this surface at *A*0 is 13 ft.; at *A*6, 11.5 ft.; at *F*6, 12.5 ft. Find the amount of earth to be removed.

322. Same as Problem 321 except the elevation of the finished surface at *A*0 is 30 ft.; at *A*6, 31.2 ft.; at *F*6, 29.0 ft. Find the amount of earth to be added.

323. Same as Problem 321 except the unit area is a 50-ft. square and the elevation of the finished surface at *A*0 is 10 ft.; at *A*6, 11.8 ft.; and at *F*6, 12.3 ft.

324. Same as Problem 322 except the unit area is a 50-ft. square and the elevation of the finished surface at $A0$ is 28.1 ft.; at $A6$, 29.9 ft.; and at $F6$, 30.9 ft.

Questions: 1. What is meant by a 3 per cent grade or gradient? p. 428. 2. How are the elevations at different points corresponding to a given grade calculated? p. 428. 3. What is the cut or fill at any point, and the corresponding algebraic signs? p. 429. 4. What is a polyhedron; a truncated prism; a right-truncated prism? p. 429. 5. What is the volume of a truncated prism equal to? 6. Give the general method of calculating earthwork from unit areas, p. 429. 7. Explain the method of procedure when the finished surface slopes in one direction; when it slopes in two directions. 8. Explain the method of procedure when the outline of an area is not rectangular, p. 431. 9. Give suggestions: (a) For a systematic method of computation, p. 431; (b) as regards the size of a unit square, p. 432. 10. In very uneven ground how may the method of unit rectangles or squares be modified to obtain greater accuracy? p. 432.

Exercise E-2.

To Calculate Earthwork by the Method of Unit Areas.

(Irregular Boundaries.)

This exercise is the same as the preceding exercise except that the outline of the area to be graded is not rectangular, but irregular. The instructor should make up a problem similar to that indicated in Fig. 467 (g), p. 431, or Fig. 468, p. 432, establishing the elevations for the finished surface in such a way that it will lie entirely below or above the original surface, i.e., so that the grading will be all cut or all fill.

Exercise E-3.

To Estimate Cut and Fill by the Method of Unit Areas.

Reference: Page 432, § 468.

Directions: Before beginning the computation, make a sketch as directed in the method of procedure at the bottom of p. 430. Determine by interpolation the points where there is neither cut nor fill. (See p. 433.) Calculate separately the cut and the fill, each by the method of § 467 (e), p. 430. For the methods of interpolation see § 469, p. 433; also p. 497.

Problem: (To be assigned from the thirteen problems given below.)

PROBLEMS.

When the finished surface is level.

331. A rectangular plot is divided into 20-ft. squares and the corners are numbered according to the system shown in Fig. 402 (c), p. 341. The elevations at each corner in feet are as follows:

$A0 = 42.4$,
$A1 = 41.3$,
$A2 = 42.1$,
$A3 = 43.2$,
$A4 = 39.6$,
$A5 = 38.7$,
$A6 = 36.3$,
$B0 = 43.1$,
$B1 = 44.0$,
$B2 = 42.8$,
$B3 = 41.6$,
$B4 = 39.9$,
$B5 = 39.2$,
$B6 = 37.1$,
$C0 = 44.2$,
$C1 = 45.6$,
$C2 = 43.9$,
$C3 = 42.1$,
$C4 = 41.8$,
$C5 = 39.9$,
$C6 = 36.0$,
$D0 = 41.6$,
$D1 = 40.9$,
$D2 = 41.0$,
$D3 = 41.4$,
$D4 = 40.3$,
$D5 = 39.1$,
$D6 = 36.9$,
$E0 = 42.6$,
$E1 = 41.4$,
$E2 = 38.7$,
$E3 = 36.3$,
$E4 = 37.2$,
$E5 = 36.1$,
$E6 = 35.0$,
$F0 = 43.2$,
$F1 = 42.1$,
$F2 = 37.8$,
$F3 = 35.4$,
$F4 = 34.6$,
$F5 = 33.2$,
$F6 = 31.7$,
$G0 = 45.8$,
$G1 = 43.4$,
$G2 = 41.2$,
$G3 = 39.7$,
$G4 = 37.4$,
$G5 = 31.0$,
$G6 = 30.0$.

Calculate the cut and fill required to grade the plot to a level surface whose elevation is 40.0 ft. Answer in cubic yards.

332. Same as Problem 331 except the elevation of the level surface is 39.0 ft.

333. Same as Problem 331 except that the unit area is a 50-ft. square and the elevation of the level surface is 37.0 ft.

334. Same as Problem 331 except that the unit area is a 50-ft square and the elevation of the level surface is 42.0 ft.

335. What should be the elevation of the level surface in Problem 331 in order to make cut and fill equal?

When the finished surface slopes in one direction only.

336. Assume the data given in Problem 331. The elevation of the finished surface at *A*0 is 40.0 ft.; at*A*6, 38.5 ft.; at *G*0, 40.0 ft.; and at *G*6, 38.5 ft. Calculate the cut and fill in grading to a plane surface determined by these four elevations.

337. Same as Problem 336 except the elevations are as follows: *A*0, 41.0 ft.; *A*6, 38.0 ft.; *G*0, 41.0 ft.; *G*6, 38.0 ft.

338. Same as Problem 336 except the unit area is a 50-ft. square and the elevations are as follows: *A*0, 39.0 ft.; *A*6, 37.5 ft.; *G*0, 39.0 ft.; *G*6, 37.5 ft.

339. Same as Problem 336 except the unit area is a 50-ft. square and the elevations are as follows: A0, 41.0 ft.; *A*6, 39.2 ft.; *G*0, 41.0 ft.; *G*6, 39.2 ft.

When the finished surface slopes in two directions.

340. Assume the data given in Problem 331. The plane of the finished surface is determined by two lines, one from *A*0 to *A*6, the other from *A*6 to *G*6. The elevation of this surface at *A*0 is 42.0 ft.; at *A*6, 40.2 ft.; at *G*6, 38.4 ft. Calculate the cut and fill.

341. Same as Problem 340 except the elevation of the finished surface at *A*0 is 41.8 ft.; at *A*6, 38.2 ft.; at *G*6, 39.4 ft.

342. Same as Problem 340 except the unit area is a 50-ft. square and the elevation of the finished surface at *A*0 is 40.2 ft.; at *A*6, 39.0 ft.; at *G*6, 37.2 ft.

343. Same as Problem 340 except the unit area is a 50-ft. square and the elevation of the finished surface at *A*0 is 39.0 ft.; at *A*6, 40.2 ft.; at *G*6, 38.4 ft.

Exercise E-4.

To Calculate Cut and Fill by the Method of Unit Areas.

(Irregular Boundaries.)

This exercise is the same as Exercise E-2, p. 146,* except that the finished surface is such that the calculations will be for both *cut and fill*, instead of for all cut, or for all fill.

Exercise E-5.

Calculation of Earthwork for Ditches and Embankments.

Reference: Page 434, § 470.

Directions: Find the area of each cross-section in succession, either by the use of the planimeter or by calculation, and apply the "end area" formula to the solids between the respective cross-sections as explained in § 470.

Note: If desired, the problems may also be solved by the "prismoidal formula." The problems are made simple purposely, it being taken for granted that, in most cases, the student will study this part of the subject to better advantage in connection with railway surveying.

PROBLEMS.

351. A ditch is 8.0 ft. wide at the bottom, and falls 0.5 ft. in 100 ft.; its sides slope outward 1½ horizontal to 1 vertical. The elevation at the bottom of the ditch at **0 + 0** = 20.0 ft. The elevations of the three points on the surface of the ground at each station are as follows: at **0 +0**, *C* (the center height) = 32.1 ft., *R* (the right-hand edge of the ditch) = 31.1 ft., *L* (the left-hand edge of the ditch) = 33.6 ft.; at **0 + 50,** *C* = 31.6 ft., *R* = 30.8 ft., *L* = 32.4 ft.; at **1+ 00,** *C* = 30.1 ft., *R* = 28.7 ft., *L* = 31.0 ft.; at **1 + 50,** *C* = 28.2 ft., *R* = 26.4 ft., *L* = 29.1 ft.; at **2+ 00,** *C* = 24.3 ft., *R* = 23.1 ft., *L* = 25.3 ft. Calculate the earth to be removed from the portion of the ditch given above.

352. Same as Problem 351 except the bottom of the ditch is 10.0 ft. wide and the sides slope outward 1¼ horizontal to 1 vertical.

353. Assume the elevations on the surface of the ground to be the same as in Problem 351. It is desired to build an embankment, the top of which is 8.0 ft. wide and at an elevation of 36.0 ft. The sides slope 1½ horizontal to 1 vertical. Calculate the total fill.

354. Same as Problem 353 except the top of the embankment is 10.0 ft. wide and at an elevation of 38.0 ft. The sides slope 1¼ horizontal to 1 vertical.

Questions: 1. Define prismoid. 2. A transverse slope is denoted by the horizontal distance which corresponds to a vertical distance of one unit. How does this differ from the method ordinarily used in denoting a longitudinal slope (commonly called "grade")? 3. Give the "end area" formula. 4. Give the "prismoidal" formula. 5. Which gives the better results? 6. In the "prismoidal" formula is the area *M* the mean of the two end areas; how is it obtained? 7. What is meant by "three-level" cross-sections? 8. For "three-level" sections how may the work of computation be shortened?

Exercise E-6.

To Estimate Cut and Fill from a Contour Map.

Reference: Page 435.

Directions: The problem in this exercise is to estimate the cut and fill from a contour map, using one or more methods explained in § 471, p. 435. A contour map already plotted may be used, or a fictitious map similar to that shown in Fig. 471 (a), p. 435, may be drawn and used as a basis for computation.

Questions: 1. Explain in detail the first method, p. 435. 2. Explain the second method, p. 436. 3. Explain the third method, p. 436, illustrating it by means of a sketch.

GROUP P.

EXERCISES IN PLOTTING.

Exercise P-1.

Use of Drawing Instruments.

References: Pages 438 to 442 and pages 445 to 449.

Preparations of instruments: 1. First of all, *sharpen the pencil properly and then keep it sharp*. See remark, p. 438. Every student is required to keep at hand a piece of sandpaper and a cloth which may be suspended from the corner of the drawing table for convenience. 2. Insert a *hard* lead in the compasses and sharpen it to a *cone shape* point. See p. 442, § 478 (1). 3. Adjust the pivot needle, p. 442, § 478 (2). 4. Make a pricking point by inserting a needle in a wooden or a wax handle. See p. 448, § 486. 5. Test the edge of the T-square for straightness. See footnote, p. 438. 6. Test the left hand edge of the drawing board for straightness by bringing the upper edge of the T-square into contact with it. In a similar manner see if the surface of the board is a plane. 7. Test the triangles as directed in the footnote, p. 439. 8. Either during this exercise or previous to the next exercise, the student should prepare a protractor similar to that described on p. 456, § 493 (c).

Note: While the student is supposed to have had a course in mechanical drawing before beginning this course, nevertheless, it will be found advantageous to devote the first exercise in plotting to a drill in those methods of drafting which are of especial importance in mapping. The exercise will be of little value, however, unless the student is careful to observe the precautions outlined above, precautions which, if taken throughout the course, will enable him to secure more accurate results than he otherwise could. Additional suggestions for drafting should be reviewed in a recitation on the questions given at the end of this exercise.

PROBLEMS.

361. (1) Draw a horizontal line about 10″ long. (Read § 483, p. 446.) (2) Set the zero mark of the scale at an assumed point *A* on the horizontal line, and *without moving the scale* lay off in succession to a scale of 1″ = 20′ – 0″ the following distances:

$AB = 30$ ft., $BC = 42$ ft., $CD = 65.5$ ft., and $DE = 21.5$ ft. Check: $AE = 159.0$ ft. (Read § 475, p. 440, and § 486, p. 448.) (3) Draw a second horizontal line about 10″ long, and in a similar manner lay off (to a scale of 1″ = 40′ – 0″): 0 + 40, 0 + 60, 1 + 10, 1 + 75, 2 + 38, 3 + 17. (Read § 486 (a), p. 449.)

Note: In inspecting the above work the instructor will note: (1) If the pencil is sharpened correctly. (2) If fine, almost invisible prick-marks and freehand circles have been used. (3) If lengths are correct.

362. (1) Draw a line about 6″ long at 45° to the horizontal, and mark two points on it *A* and *B*, 128.2 ft. apart to a scale of 1″ = 30′ – 0″. (2) By means of the compasses and scale, establish a point *C* 98.5 ft. from *A* and 120.6 ft. from *B*. Draw only *one* arc. (Read § 478, p. 442.)

Note: In inspecting the above work the instructor will note if the compasses were used correctly, and if the three lengths are correct. If a visible hole was left in the paper by the pivot needle of the compasses, it is evident that either the legs were not bent, or too much pressure was exerted.

363. (1) Draw a line at random about 10″ long and inclined *about* 10° to the horizontal. (2) Mark off on this line 421 ft. to a scale of 1″ = 50′ – 0″. (3) At one end of this length erect a perpendicular *about* 10″ long by using *two* triangles. (Read § 474 (1), p. 439.) (4) Lay off 328 ft. on this perpendicular. (5) Complete the 421 × 328 ft. rectangle without further measurement by drawing parallel lines with the two triangles. (Read § 474 (3), p. 439.) (6) Check the rectangle by measuring the lengths of the two diagonals.

Note: In inspecting the above work the instructor will note: (1) If light hair-lines have been used, and if the lines intersect sharply at corners, running beyond instead of stopping short. (2) If right methods of erecting perpendiculars and drawing parallel lines were employed. (3) If the lengths of the sides of a rectangle and of its diagonals are correct.

Questions: 1. What is the purpose of sharpening one end of the pencil to a wedge shape edge? p. 438. 2. How close to the ruling edge should pencil lines be drawn? p. 438. 3. Give additional suggestions for penciling, p. 446. 4. Give suggestions for the use of the T-square, p. 438. 5. Why should not the T-square be used against the top or bottom of the board for drawing vertical lines? p. 439. 6. What is the incorrect way of erecting a perpendicular line by means of a triangle? 7. How should the triangles be used for erecting perpendiculars; for drawing parallel lines? p. 439. 8. Explain the use of the decimal scale, p. 440. 9. Give additional suggestions for laying off measurements as regards marking points; use of dividers; arithmetical work; estimating fractions of a foot; setting the compasses to a given radius; detecting large errors; detecting small errors; avoiding the use of the wrong edge of the scale; laying off plus stations. p. 448. 10. What is the proper use of the dividers; the improper use; use of proportional dividers? p. 441. 11. Give suggestions for the use of the compass, p. 442. 12. Give suggestions for the use of the curve-ruler, p. 442. 13. Give suggestions for fastening the paper to the board, p. 445. 14. Give precautions to insure neatness, p. 445. 15. Give suggestions for erasing as regards erasing pencil lines; keeping the eraser clean; erasing ink lines; restoring the surface of the paper; use of an erasing shield; cleaning tracings. p. 447.

Exercise P-2.

Methods of Plotting Angles.

Reference: Chapter XXXVIII, p. 455.

Directions: The angles in each problem of this exercise should be plotted with as great accuracy as the method used in that problem will permit. Use hair-lines and prick the points.

PROBLEMS.

371. Draw a horizontal line 396 ft. long to a scale of 1″ = 50′ − 0″. By means of the protractor lay off at one end of this line an angle of 38° 20′ and at the other end an angle of 51° 40′. The two lines thus obtained and the original line should form a right-angled triangle; test the right angle by means of the two instrumental triangles. (In using the protractor, minutes of arc are estimated.)

372. Same as Problem 371 except use the tangent method for plotting angles, p. 458.

373. Same as Problem 371 except use the cosine and sine method, p. 459.

374. Same as Problem 371 except use the chord method, p. 459.

375. Compare the results by drawing an arc of 6″ radius for each of the angles in the above problems, and by means of the dividers see if the corresponding chords are of the same length in all four figures.

Questions: 1. Name five methods of plotting angles, p. 455. 2. Give suggestions for centering the protractor, p. 455. 3. Give three methods of laying off an angle greater than 180°, p. 456. 4. How closely can angles be plotted with an ordinary protractor? p. 456. 5. What is a vernier protractor? p. 456. 6. What is the advantage of the form of protractor shown on p. 456? 7. Give suggestions for making such a protractor, p. 457. 8. Explain the tangent method of plotting angles, p. 458. 9. Why is it advantageous to use a 10″ base? 10. When an angle exceeds 45° how is it plotted? 11. Explain methods of plotting angles a little greater or less than 90°; 180°; 270°. 12. Give practical suggestions as regards erecting perpendiculars; laying off hundredths of an inch; using a base larger or smaller than 10 inches; checking angles roughly; detecting small mistakes; laying off angles in the field. p. 459. 13. Explain the cosine and sine method of plotting angles and give the check, p. 459. 14. Explain the chord method of plotting angles, p. 459. 15. Give practical suggestions for the chord method as regards use of beam compasses and scale; a home-made device; use of 5″ radius; use of 8″, 9″, or 12″ radius. 16. Explain why, if the radius is 10″ and fiftieths on the scale are used, it is not necessary to multiply the sine of half the angle by 2. See Fig. 496 (c), p. 460. 17. What is the largest angle that can be laid off conveniently by the chord method without erecting a perpendicular? 18. Compare the different methods of plotting angles, p. 461. 19. Explain the three-point problem in plotting by the graphic method; by the algebraic method.

Methods of Plotting Traverses.

(Introductory.)

Before beginning to plot surveys from notes taken in the field, it is well for the student to have a preliminary drill in the different methods of plotting traverses. For this purpose it is advisable to select a polygon of four or five sides from among the problems given on p. 122,* and to plot this polygon by each of the general methods explained in Chapter XXXIX, p. 463. He will thus obtain a knowledge of the advantages and disadvantages of the different methods when applied to the same polygon. As *pointed out* on p. 463, for each of the four methods of plotting traverse lines there are four methods of plotting angles, but it is not worth while to plot the polygon sixteen times for the sake of illustrating each of these methods since many of them are so nearly alike. The methods chosen for the seven succeeding exercises have been selected with a view of bringing out the most important points connected with plotting traverses. In each exercise the choice of scale is left to the student or to the instructor. If desired, different scales may be employed for the different problems, care being taken that the scale is not so large that the polygon will run off the paper, or so small that the accuracy of the work is impaired. It is not advisable to ink the drawings, as time can be spent to better advantage in other work.

Exercise P-3.

Plotting Traverses with a Protractor.

Reference: Page 464, § 502.

Directions: 1. Assume one side of the polygon in any position on the paper that will permit the rest of the polygon to be plotted without running off the paper. 2. Plot the polygon, using the protractor for laying off angles, and the scale for laying off lengths. 3. Not only should the line from the last station pass through the first station, but the distance from the former to the latter, as scaled on the drawing, should be equal to that given in the notes. The student should make this test when the polygon is completed.

Problem: Plot the polygon of Problem , p. (To be assigned by the instructor from the problems on p. 122.*)

Questions: 1. Why is it important to plot traverse lines with great accuracy? p. 463. 2. How great an error in feet may be caused by the width of a line? 3. When may a protractor be used consistently for plotting traverses? p. 464. 4. Give precautions for centering protractor, p. 464.

Exercise P-4.

Tangent Method of Plotting Traverses.

Reference: Page 464, § 503 (a).

Directions: 1. Make a rough freehand sketch in the notebook and enter on this sketch the lengths and the angles to be plotted. (Angles are not necessarily the same as those given in the notes.) Check this data before proceeding. 2. Make out a table corresponding to that at the top of p. 465. 3. Plot each of the transit lines in succession by the tangent method. Check each angle roughly with the protractor as soon as plotted. 4. Check the length as well as the direction of the last line.

Problem: Same as the problem in Exercise P-3 except that the tangent method is used for plotting angles.

Questions: 1. Explain the tangent method of plotting traverses, p. 465. 2. If the closing line passes through the first station and is of the right length on the drawing, what additional check may be applied? p. 465. 3. When a traverse has a large number of sides, what check should be applied at every fourth or fifth station? p. 466, § 503 (c).

Exercise P-5.

Chord Method of Plotting Traverses.

Reference: Page 465, § 503 (b).

Directions: Same as for the preceding exercise except that the table made out in the note-book corresponds to that at the bottom of p. 465. It may also be advisable to plot deflection angles at stations where the interior angles are very obtuse.

Problem: Same as the problem in Exercise P-3 except that that the chord method is used for plotting angles.

Questions: 1. Explain the chord method for plotting traverses. p. 465. 2. Give the checks to be employed in this method. p. 466. 3. Give the method of plotting by deflection *angles. p.* 466.

Exercise P-6.

Plotting Traverses by Bearings.

(Tangent Method.)

Reference: Page 467, § 505.

Directions: 1. If the bearings of the lines are not given, calculate them from the angles at the stations. 2. Make a sketch in the note-book showing the bearing of each line and its length. 3. Prepare a table in the note-book corresponding to that at the top of p. 469. 4. Find the direction of each line from its bearing by the method illustrated in Fig. 505 (a), p. 468, or Fig. 505 (b), p. 469, preferably the latter method. Whichever method is used do not fail to test the square and to mark each line as soon as obtained with its letters or its numbers as shown in the figures referred to above. 5. Plot the polygon in any position which will bring it wholly within the limits of the paper, by transferring the direction of each line of the polygon to its proper place in the plot. Check each angle of the polygon roughly as soon as it is obtained, using the protractor for this purpose. 6. Apply the usual tests to the closing line.

Problem: Same as the problem in Exercise P-3 except that the sides of the polygon are plotted from their bearings by the tangent method.

Questions: 1. Explain the general method of plotting traverses by bearings. p. 467. 2. What bearings are plotted? See Note, p. 467. 3. Give two general methods of procedure. p. 467. 4. In either method what is the most convenient meridian to assume? p. 467. 5. When is it convenient to use a T-square with an adjustable head? p. 468. 6. Explain the tangent method of plotting bearings. p. 468. 7. Explain the corresponding modified method, p. 469. 8. Explain the chord method of plotting bearings. p. 469. 9. Explain the corresponding modified method. p. 470. 10. Give the checks to be employed. p. 471. 11. Give one of the chief objections to plotting traverses by bearings. p. 471. 12. To what kind of work is this method best suited?

Exercise P-7.

Plotting Traverses by Bearings.

(Chord Method.)

Reference: Page 469, § 505 (c) and § 505 (e).

Directions: This exercise might be made exactly like the preceding exercise, using the chord method instead of the tangent method in plotting bearings. This would involve little that is new, hence it is better to employ the method of § 505 (e), p. 470, drawing a new meridian at each station. Follow the directions of the preceding exercise except where they conflict with the method used in this exercise.

Problem: Same as the problem in Exercise P-3 except that the sides of the polygon are plotted from their bearings, a reference meridian being drawn at each station and the corresponding bearing plotted by the chord method.

Questions: 1. Explain the method of plotting bearings from a reference meridian at each station. p. 470. 2. Compare this method with the method of the preceding exercise. 3. Outline another method sometimes used for large maps. p. 471. 4. What is the advantage of this method?

Exercise P-8.

Plotting Traverses by Azimuths.

Reference: Page 471, § 506.

Directions: 1. Change the bearings of the sides of the polygon in the preceding exercise to azimuths. 2. Make a freehand sketch in the note-book, giving the azimuth and length of each line, and the angle which will be plotted at each station. 3. Use either the tangent or chord method for plotting the angles, preparing in advance a table of tangents or of chords to correspond. Apply the usual checks throughout the work.

Problem: Same as the preceding exercise except azimuths are plotted instead of bearings. As this in itself involves little that is new, it is desirable to use a method of plotting not employed in either of the two preceding problems. For example, the azimuths may be plotted by the tangent method from meridians drawn through the stations.

Exercise P-9.

Plotting Traverses by Latitudes and Departures.

Reference: Pages 471 to 475, § 507.

Directions: Follow the method of procedure outlined on p. 472, § 507 (b), observing also the practical suggestions at the top of p. 475.

Problem: Same as the problem in Exercise P-3 except that the polygon is plotted by the method of latitudes and departures.

Questions: 1. What bearings are used in computing latitudes and departures, calculated or magnetic? p. 471. 2. Without going into detail, what is the general method of plotting by latitudes and departures? p. 471. 3. Why is the most westerly station the most convenient reference point? p. 471. 4. Could any other reference point be used? 5. If azimuths are given in field notes instead of bearings, is it necessary to reduce them to bearings before calculating latitudes and departures? p. 472. 6. Explain three different methods of determining which is the most westerly station. p. 472. 7. Outline in detail the general method of plotting by latitudes and departures. p. 472. 8. What is the object in using a reference-rectangle and measuring from the two nearest sides to locate a point instead of locating it by coördinates by means of a T-square and triangles? p. 473, "Caution." 9. Give practical suggestions for plotting by latitudes and departures as regards (1) plotting large maps; (2) assuming the reference-rectangle so that no side is horizontal or vertical; (3) testing the rectangle; (4) plotting each station by its latitude and departure from the preceding station, and the advantage of this method; (5) advantage of drawing the traverse lines so that they stop just short of each station. p. 475. 10. What checks may be employed in this method of plotting? p. 475.

Methods of Plotting Traverses Compared: 1. Compare the tangent method and the chord method. p. 475. 2. What is the chief advantage in plotting direct angles or deflection angles instead of bearings or azimuths? p. 475. 3. What are some of the disadvantages of the direct angle method? p. 475. 4. When may the method of plotting by bearings be used? p. 476. 5. What are the advantages of plotting by latitudes and departures? p. 476.

Exercise P-10.

Plotting the Survey on Page 184.

Note: It will be found that the plotting of this survey is exceedingly good practice, as it involves nearly all the common methods of locating points which are used in the field. If desired, recitations Q–1 to Q–4 may be held in connection with this exercise.

Reference: Comments on the survey are given on p. 184; comments on the notes on p. 185. The notes themselves, however, are given on the inset sheet opposite to p. 190, Illustration V.

Directions: 1. Plot the transit lines first, using one of the trigonometric methods. 2. Plot the details, using the scale and protractor.

Problem: Plot the survey shown on the inset sheet opposite p. 190, Illustration 5. Choose a scale as large as practicable and still have the map fall within the limits of the paper.

GROUP Q.

QUESTIONS PERTAINING TO MAPPING.

Plotting Maps from Field Notes.

(Introductory).

In most courses in surveying students are required to plot maps from their own notes taken in the field. The preliminary drill in plotting having been completed and this work of plotting field notes having been begun, it is well to hold recitations from time to time on that part of the mapping in which the student is engaged. Thus, for example, before beginning to work up the notes preparatory to plotting, it is well to cover the ground outlined by the questions in Exercise Q–1. Before beginning to plot, the questions in Exercises Q–2 and Q–3 may be discussed. Before beginning to plot details, Exercise Q–4 may be taken up, and when the map is finally completed in pencil and ready to ink, questions on finishing the map may be discussed.

Exercise Q–1.

Working Up Field Notes Preparatory to Plotting.

Questions: 1. What is one of the first things to do in working up notes? p. 477. 2. In addition to saving time what other object is there in getting together all data and in making all the preliminary calculations before beginning to plot? p. 473. 3. When is it most necessary to correct field measurements? p. 478. 4. What are some of the corrections applied to linear measurements? to angular measurements? p. 478. 5. For what purpose are measurements adjusted? p. 478. 6. How may linear measurements be adjusted? angular measurements? p. 478. 7. It is often best not to follow any rule in adjusting angles. How is this illustrated by the survey on p. 390? p. 479. 8. In work of great precision how are observed values adjusted? p. 479. 9. What can you say regarding the calculation of bearings: for purposes of plotting; true bearings; use of adjusted values in angles; bearings in compass surveys? p. 479. 10. What methods are used for supplying missing data and what is the disadvantage in the use of these methods? p. 480. 11. Explain the method of reducing stadia notes by the use of reduction tables; by means of a diagram.* p. 481. 12. Why should the abridged method of multiplication be used in connection with reduction tables? 13. Summarize the first five or six steps in preparing data for plotting. p. 483. 14. Give the additional steps, p. 484, for (a) protractor method; (b) tangent method; (c) chord method; (d) latitude and departure method; (e) azimuth method.

Exercise Q-2.

Plotting the Map.

(General Methods and Suggestions.)

Questions: 1. What is the best kind of paper for map work? p. 485. 2. What is the best paper for maps that are to be tinted; for maps to be reproduced? p. 485. 3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the different kinds of blue print paper? p. 485. 4. What are the most essential requirements for drawing instruments? p. 486. 5. Give some of the precautions to be taken in accurate plotting. p. 486. 6. What effect has the shrinkage of the paper and how may shrinkage be partly avoided? p. 486. 7. Why should maps be kept flat? p. 487. 8. Give the general methods employed in mapping. p. 487. 9. Give the general method of procedure. p. 487. 10. What are the most common scales for ordinary maps? p. 488. 11. Why are not the scales of 70 and 90 ft. to the inch commonly used? p. 488. 12. What is the so-called natural scale and what are some of the scales used for government work? p. 488. 13. Give some of the primary considerations in choosing a scale and illustrate by examples. p. 489. 14. Give some of the common scales used: for preliminary surveys of railroads; maps of mines and mining claims; maps for architects. p. 489. 15. What are the advantages of the scales 1 in. = 20 ft., 1 in. = 40 ft., and 1 in. = 80 ft.? p. 489. 16. What are some of the considerations which sometimes determine the size of the sheet? p. 489. 17. How does the arrangement of the map affect the size of the sheet? p. 489.

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* *If desired,* the student may be required to construct a diagram.

18. How may the shape and extent of a survey be determined roughly? p. 489. 19. Give two general rules for choosing the scale for a map. p. 490. 20. Why is it advantageous to adopt a small scale for topographic maps? p. 490. 21. What is the object in sometimes drawing maps of the same territory to different scales? p. 490. 22. What arrangement of the map is desirable as regards points of the compass? p. 490. 23. Why is this arrangement seldom economical? 24. What effect has the natural approach to a piece of property on the arrangement of the map? p. 490. 25. What is usually the first step in beginning a map? p. 490. 26. Where do you begin to plot a map and why work half way around a polygon in either direction? p. 491. 27. Give suggestions for assuming the first line. p. 491. 28. When it is desired to economize space and the map is plotted by latitudes and departures how would you proceed in assuming a reference-meridian, or reference-rectangle? p. 491. 29. When is a preliminary plot unnecessary? p. 491.

Exercise Q–3.

Plotting Traverses.

(Review.)

Questions: 1. To what do the different methods of plotting traverses correspond? p. 492. 2. In plotting traverses when is the protractor used? 3. What are the other methods used for plotting traverses? 4. Why should traverse lines be plotted accurately? 5. Summarize five methods of plotting transit lines, giving the checks used in each: (1) each line plotted from the preceding line, p. 492; (2) each line plotted by deflection angle, p. 493; (3) each line plotted from its bearing, p. 493; (4) each line plotted from its azimuth, p. 493; (5) transit lines plotted from latitudes and departures, p. 493. 6. Give the methods of checking linear measurements: (1) any straight line; (2) comparing the lengths of lines with corresponding distances in field notes; (3) checking lines of a traverse; (4) checking two points by indirect measurements. 7. Give the checks for angles: (1) when laid off with a protractor; (2) test for two or more adjacent angles; (3) check for angles plotted by trigonometric method; (4) checking angles between traverse lines. 8. Answer question on p. 495. 9. Give combination checks: (1) for a reference-rectangle; (2) for a closed traverse; (3) for extra distances taken in the field, p. 495. 10. Give methods of running down errors, p. 495: (1) when the error of closure is parallel or perpendicular to some line in the traverse; (2) when a traverse has been plotted by direct angles; (3) when the direction of the closing line is found to be incorrect; (4) when lines have been plotted by bearings or azimuths; (5) when a point is wrong and the mistake not easily found; (6) effect of long lines and lines north and south or east and west. 11. Give the different methods of plotting a triangulation net. p. 491.

Exercise Q-4.

Plotting Details.

Questions: 1. Give the methods of plotting points located by angles and distances, p. 496. 2. What precautions should be taken to avoid confusion? 3. Give the methods of plotting points located by angles. 4. Give the method of plotting points by linear methods only. 5. How may the straightness of a line located by offsets be tested? 6. Give general suggestions for keeping the drawing free from unnecessary lines, p. 496; for testing check distances; for plotting important points at a station; for plotting doubtful points, p. 497. 7. Explain the graphic method of interpolating contours. p. 497. 8. Why, as a rule, will a point interpolated from two given points be different if interpolated between two other points. Remark, p. 497. 9. Explain the tracing cloth method of interpolating contours. p. 497. 10. Give suggestions for the use of this method. p. 498. 11. Describe a home-made device for interpolating contours. p. 498. 12. What determines the accuracy required in plotting? and give illustrations. p. 499. 13. What contributes to speed in plotting? p. 499. 14. Give the different methods of copying and transferring maps. p. 500. 15. Which methods are used for copying to a different scale from that of the original map. p. 501.

Exercise Q-5.

Finishing the Map.

Questions: 1. In finishing a map what are some of the specifications for workmanship? p. 502. 2. What in general should appear on a map? p. 502. 3. When is the scale of the map shown by a drawing instead of being given in figures? p. 502. 4. Is a magnetic meridian always shown? p. 502. 5. What are the most important requirements for an ordinary property map? p. 502. 6. What are some of the additional requirements prescribed by law in some states? Remark, p. 503. 7. Give some of the requirements for topographic maps. p. 503. 8. Give some of the things which should appear on a map made for an architect. p. 211. 9. Giye the general method of procedure in finishing a map. p. 503. 10. Give suggestions for arrangement of (a) border lines, p. 504; (b) lettering, p. 505; (c) titles, p. 505; (d) names of streets, streams, property owners, etc., p. 505; (e) give additional suggestions for arrangement, p. 505.

Questions on Inking: 1. Give suggestions for the use of a ruling pen as regards (1) producing clear-cut lines, p. 440; (2) method of holding the pen, p. 440; (3) adjusting the nibs of the pen, p. 441; (4) cleaning the nibs; (5) sharpening the pen; (6) method of inking straight lines (Suggestions (5), (6), and (7), p. 446); (7) order of inking straight lines and circles, p. 447; (8) inking lines that meet in a point, p. 447; (9) inking wide lines, p. 447; (10) mixing india ink, p. 447. 2. Give additional suggestions for inking as regards (1) order of inking lines, p. 506; (2) inking edges of streams and similar indefinite lines, p. 506; (3) inking traverse lines, p., 506; (4) inking broken lines. 3. Give the method of outline shading. p. 506. 4. Give suggestions for the use of colored inks. p. 506.

Questions on Tracing: 1. Give general suggestions for tracing as regards (1) which side of the cloth to use, p. 451; (2) preparation of the tracing cloth, p. 451; (3) effect of too fine lines and figures on the blue print, p. 451; (4) precautions to be taken in erasing on tracing cloth, p. 452; (5) inserting new pieces of cloth, p. 452; (6) effect of moisture on tracing cloth, p. 452; (7) use of tracing paper instead of tracing cloth, p. 452; (8) best ink to use, p. 452; (9) method of cleaning a tracing,

p. 452. 2. What are the printing qualities of different colored inks? p. 507. 3. How may tracings be colored with pencils? p. 507. 4. How should streams and shore lines be colored? p. 507. 5. Give method of lettering tracings by shifting letters underneath. p. 517.

Questions on Lettering: 1. Upon what does good lettering mostly depend? p. 507. 2. What defects in lettering are the least excusable? p. 508. 3. Give some suggestions as regards style of letters. p. 508. 4. Give general method of lettering. p. 509. 5. Give suggestions as regards the size of letters. p. 509. 6. Give suggestions as regards the proportions of letters. p. 510. 7. Give suggestions for penciling the letters as regards (1) use of guide lines, p. 510; (2) estimating the unit for proportioning; (3) blocking out letters; (4) two things to observe in drawing letters, p. 511; (5) devices for lettering on tracing cloth, p. 511. 8. Give the most important points to be remembered in the construction of the various letters.* p. 511. 9. Give suggestions for inking letters as regards: pens used, p. 515; inking outlines of letters; filling in; touching up imperfect corners; testing the pen; precautions for keeping the ink. 10. What are the most common defects in lettering? p. 516. 11. Give suggestions for spacing letters on paper; on tracings. p. 516. 12. Give general suggestions for lettering maps as regards (1) general arrangement, p. 517; (2) lettering curved streets or winding rivers; (3) arrangement of two lines that are not centered; (4) positions of names and descriptions; (5) printing values of small angles and of a decimal of a foot; (6) distinguishing between angular measurements and linear measurements, p. 518; (7) indicating the forward bearing for a line. 13. Give six different methods of making lettering more prominent. p. 518.

Finishing Topographic Maps: 1. Give suggestions for drawing contour-lines as regards (1) color of ink, p. 518; (2) width of lines and kind of pen used; (3) which contours are accentuated; (4) marking elevations of accentuated contours; (5) breaks in contour-lines, p. 519; (6) representing intermediate contours. 2. What are some of the common mistakes in drawing contours? p. 519, p. 338. 3. Give suggestions for conventional signs.* p. 519. 4. Give method of drawing small water courses. p. 519. 5. Give suggestions for water-lining, p. 522. 6. Give suggestions for section-lining. p. 522.

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* This study of the Gothic capitals is best made in connection with a *regular* course in lettering, or at least in separate exercises devoted to *practice* in proportioning letters.

Questions on Tinting. (See p. 449.) 1. Give the method of mixing the tint. 2. What is the effect of pencil lines? p. 450. 3. Should the drawing be tinted first or inked first? 4. Give suggestions for applying the tint. p. 450. 5. What is the secret of success in tinting? p. 450. 6. How may the tint be removed from outside the boundary line? 7. How may the surplus tint be removed? 8. Why is it well to go over the surface first with clean water? p. 451. 9. What is the best method of securing a dark tint? 10. To what is tinting on ordinary maps usually confined? p. 523. 11. Give some of the conventional tints.

Questions on Border-Lines and Titles: 1. (p. 523.) Give general suggestions for drawing border-lines as regards: simplicity; size of rectangle; width of heaviest border-line; method of drawing a heavy border-line. 2. Where is the best place for a title? 3. On what does the size of the largest letters depend? 4. What is the first consideration in designing a title? 5. Give suggestions for: arranging subject-matter; making some lines more prominent than others; centering lines; spacing lines; making lines of unequal length; styles of lettering. 6. Should lower-case letters be used? p. 524. 7. Is it well to make part of the letters inclined and part upright? 8. For what is single-stroke lettering used? 9. When should the title be drawn freehand and when with instruments? 10. Should words be abbreviated in a title? 11. How may a title be centered on tracing cloth? 12. What are some of the mechanical devices for printing titles? 13. What should appear in a title? p. 525. 14. Give the general method of procedure in constructing a title. p. 525.

Questions on Meridian Needles, Scales, etc.: 1. How is the true north distinguished from the magnetic north? p. 526. 2. How is the direction of the arrows determined? 3. Why should the magnetic declination be given in figures, if given at all? 4. How is the scale usually given? 5. When is it most necessary to represent it by a drawing, and what is the chief advantage of this? 6. What is the purpose of keys or legends?

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* A plate of conventional signs may well be drawn either in a separate exercise or in connection with a course in lettering.

7. When should explanatory notes be used and where should they be placed? 8. How may the paper be cleaned when maps are finished; how may tracings be cleaned? 9. What are some of the things that should be stated in a surveyor's certificate? p. 527. 10. By looking up some of the references on p. 528, give the most essential elements of a good filing system.

Exercise Q-6.*

Profiles.

Questions: 1. In plotting profiles, is it customary to use the same scale for laying off elevations that is used for horizontal distances? p. 529. 2. When does a profile represent a true vertical section and when does it not? p. 530. 3. Why are profiles apt to be misleading? Remark, p. 530. 4. What are the three standard styles of profile paper? p. 530. 5. Give suggestions for the choice of scale. p. 531. 6. What are some of the most convenient combinations of papers and scales? p. 531. 7. Give the method of working up notes for profiles, including the checks. p. 531. 8. Give suggestions for method of procedure in plotting profiles as regards: assuming the position and elevation of base-line, p. 532; where to begin the profile; how to make 100-ft. stations fall on accentuated vertical lines; how to number accentuated lines, vertical and horizontal; how to plot points; how to check points. 9. Give additional suggestions for: two men working to advantage, p. 533; marking points; continuing a profile which runs off the bottom or top of the paper; avoiding the common mistake of plotting turning-points and benches; plotting accurate profiles; making several copies of profiles. 10. Give examples of the method of plotting the profiles of several related lines. p. 533. 11. Give the method of laying out grades and vertical curves on profile. p. 533. 12. Give suggestions for finishing profiles as regards: representing existing surfaces and proposed changes; ruling the profile or drawing it freehand; smoothing out sharp angles; inking the base-line; methods of marking elevations; the points at which elevations should be marked; marking cut or fill; marking rate of grade; tinting or coloring profiles; method of showing different materials. 13. Give suggestions for lettering profiles. p. 535.

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* Recitation to be held in connection with an exercise in plotting profiles.

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